

THE
SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Edited by
THE FACULTY OF THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION OF THE
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

VOLUME XXVIII

JANUARY—DECEMBER, 1920



THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO
CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

School of Education
Oct. 1, 1928

Published

January, February, March, April, May, June, September,
October, November, December, 1920

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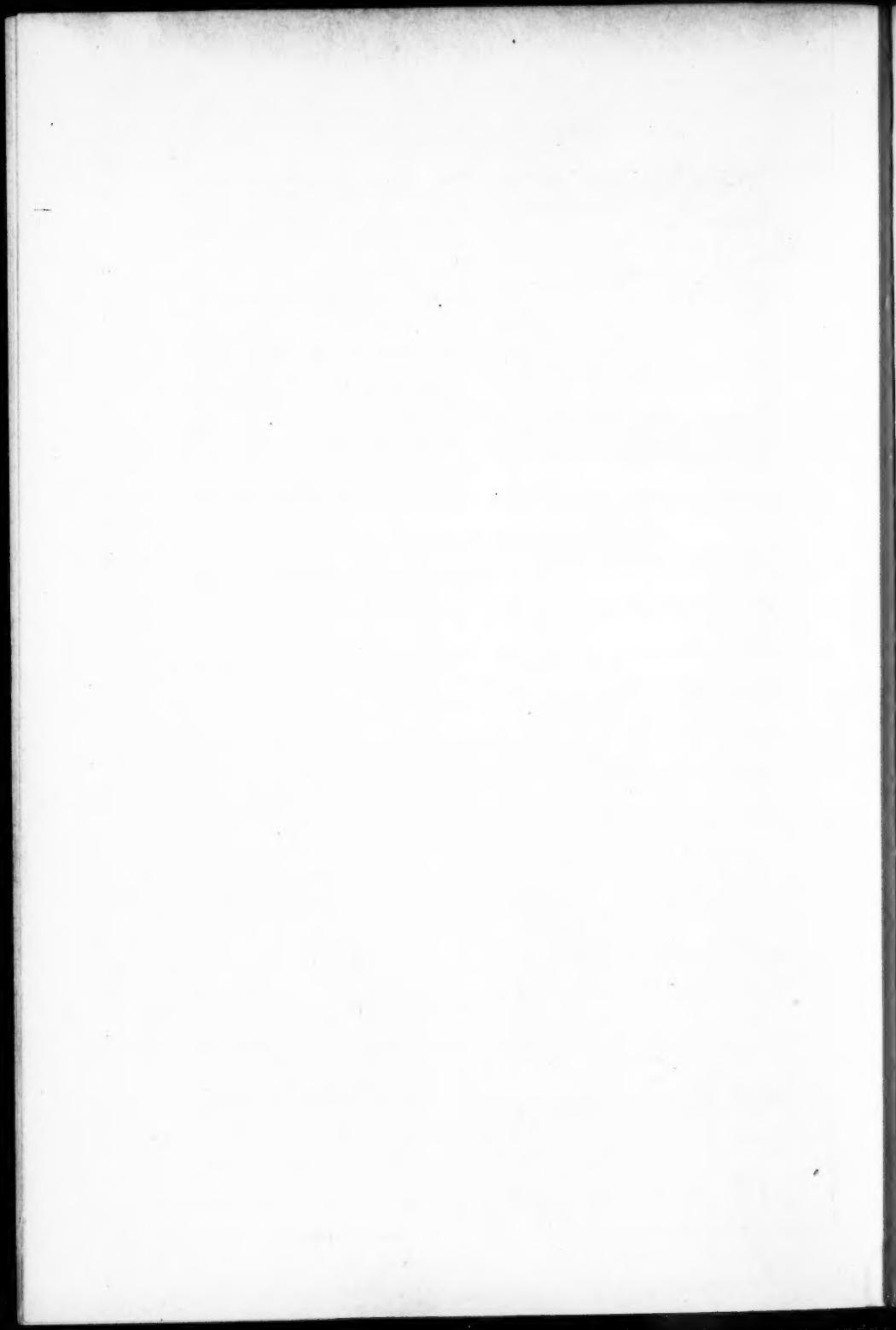
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THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

VOLUME XXVIII

JANUARY, 1920

NUMBER 1

Educational News and Editorial Comment

THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

The meeting of the Department of Superintendence is beyond any doubt the most important educational gathering of the year. The department and its affiliated organizations are attended by representatives of all the leading school systems and educational institutions of the United States. The numbers present have increased in recent years by leaps and bounds. In spite of the great size and influence of the department, its organization has remained very simple. It is therefore easy for relatively unimportant influences to determine its actions.

The *School Review* is published monthly from September to June by the University of Chicago. It is edited and managed by the Department of Education as one of a series of educational publications. The series, including also the *Elementary School Journal* and the *Supplementary Educational Monographs*, is under a joint editorial committee and covers the entire field of educational interests.

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Most of those who come to the meetings are interested in visiting schools and in getting all the new ideas they can rather than in the selection of officers or other such matters. It is well that this meeting should continue to devote itself in a whole-hearted way to matters educational, for only by so doing will it be able to meet the criticisms of those who are attempting to emphasize the distinction between teachers and administrators and to impute to administrators motives of hostility to democracy in school organization. The department can retain its dominant influence in education just so far as it continues to be a center for the full discussion of progressive school policies and just so long as it devotes itself unreservedly to constructive investigations.

It is a desire to contribute to the singleness of purpose of this great organization that prompts the writer of this editorial to venture a warning which can be effective only if it is perfectly frank. There is a widespread conviction that the machinery of the department is not running normally. Some school people believe that the influence of the book companies has been exercised for the purpose of using the prestige of the department in book adoptions. Others regard the danger of undemocratic, clique control as threatening. Still others believe that the department has been used as a club in local political situations. There is only one way in which to remove these suspicions and at the same time keep the department at the high level at which it has done its work in the past. That is to keep its organization in the hands of men of the first magnitude.

The present period of reconstruction is one which is full of grave problems for the schools. If the department is to supply real leadership, there must be no suspicion that it has been used to turn the tide of local school affairs and there must be no alliance with other than strictly professional interests.

This editorial differs somewhat from those which ordinarily appear in the *School Review* in that the writer has consulted his colleagues of the editorial board and of the advisory board and has explicit approval in advance for an editorial of this type. He has gone further and has taken up the matter with some twenty of the leading school men of the country. From this group he has in the main emphatic approval of the editorial. Where full approval has been withheld it has been from fear that it might arouse animosity.

The first draft has been rewritten in the hope that the effect may be strong enough to compensate for any possible animosities. Democracy survives only when its members are continually aroused to their duty. From every point of view it is the duty of the department at the Cleveland meeting to put in charge men who will be instantly recognized as leaders in education in the United States. Everyone who goes to the meeting should go with his mind made up that this and nothing else shall happen. The nominating committee should do its work with a full knowledge of this universal call for the only kind of leadership that is truly democratic.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

One feature of the recent reports regarding increases in school funds which have recently been provided in various school systems may be selected for special comment. In almost every case these increases are to result in the setting up of junior high schools. Other buildings are provided also, showing a wholesome growth of the whole system, but the junior high school appears either as a symptom of the progressive spirit which gets funds for enlargement or else as an established fact requiring enlargement.

The following item comes from Sacramento, California:

Sixteen new school buildings are to be erected in Sacramento during the next three years, giving the city a complete system of modern, fireproof school structures. A bond issue of \$3,064,000 for school construction was voted by the people of Sacramento by a sweeping majority.

Included in the new structures will be a polytechnic high school. Fourteen grammar school buildings are to be erected, which, with the two school buildings constructed during the past three years at \$300,000 each, will give the city sixteen up-to-date elementary schools.

The present high-school building is to be converted into another junior high school. Construction of the buildings will be hastened, for the school enrollment of Sacramento has been increasing at an average of 1,000 pupils a year for the past three years, the total now being approximately 14,000.

Omaha has just voted bonds to the extent of \$5,000,000. Out of these funds five new junior high schools are to be erected. This is a new and wholesale adoption after careful study of the institution of the junior high-school unit in the system.

From Johnstown, Pennsylvania, comes the following:

The Johnstown Board of School Directors are pleased to announce the approval, at the general election, of the proposal to issue bonds to the extent of

\$2,000,000 to consummate the Board's building program. The electors approved the proposal by more than nine to one. A city-wide advertising and publicity campaign was put on whereby the people were fully aroused to the importance of the question at issue.

The Board's program calls for the completion of the W. A. Cochran Junior High School, the erection of a new Garfield Junior High School, the erection of a new high school and the erection of four grade buildings and an office building.

The success of the campaign was all the more remarkable inasmuch as 18,000 men have been idle since September 22, because of the steel strike. Many also are idle from the coal strike.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON CHARACTER EDUCATION IN RELATION
TO CANADIAN CITIZENSHIP

The most important event in the history of Canadian education took place in 1846 when Dr. Egerton Ryerson, superintendent of education for Upper Canada, made his famous report on education to the legislature of that province by which he gave Ontario, then called Upper Canada, a public-school system that was second to none in the world and that afforded a model for other provinces of the Dominion, and from which our present systems have developed. Since then many changes have taken place in Canadian education, and much has been accomplished. But it is safe to say that no single event since 1846 equals in promise the conference just held in Winnipeg.

It was a notable and epoch-making event. This is the first representative conference held in Canada to consider the educational problems of the Dominion as a whole. True, the teachers of our country have met in Dominion conventions on several occasions, but never before did the citizens as such and the teachers get together.

Over twelve hundred delegates from every part of Canada were gathered in Winnipeg. It was not strictly a professional convention because the teaching profession did not dominate the conference. The movement seemed to come from the people as a whole. Representative citizens joined to express their views regarding, and to formulate plans concerning, the educational progress and destiny of the country.

While doubtless there was considerable rhetoric and the occasion was one that tempted to flights of language and imagination, yet the conference on the whole was very practical. It distinctly emphasized in all its deliberations the importance of the proper

conjunction of the moral and intellectual aspects of school training. It was argued that if the energy and genius of an entire people could be enlisted, controlled, and directed by means of its intellectual agencies towards an evil national purpose, the same factors could and must be made even more effective for a righteous end.

A very comprehensive program was arranged by which various phases of the school's part as a factor in character-education for citizenship were considered. The best Canadian industrial and professional talent was secured for the occasion, and the assistance of many outside of our country was enlisted. Among the outstanding speakers at the conference were Dr. Soares of the University of Chicago; Sir Robert Falconer, president of the University of Toronto; Dr. Helen MacMurchy of the Ontario Department of Education; Dr. James W. Robertson, Dominion commissioner of the Boy Scouts; Mr. Taylor Statten of the Boys' Work Department of the Y. M. C. A.; Dr. Suzzallo, president of the University of Washington; Michael O'Brien of Toronto; President John Finley, commissioner of education for New York; and Dr. J. T. M. Anderson, director of education among New Canadians in Saskatchewan. The most striking personality of the whole conference was Peter Wright of the British Seaman's Union. He was a man who had had a great and wonderful experience in life. As much homely wisdom came from this rugged old Briton as from any of the university-trained men.

The practical results of the conference can be best summed up in an account of the resolutions passed in the concluding sessions. These provided for:

1. The perpetuation of the conference.
2. The establishment of a National Bureau of Education under the council of the conference.
3. The recommendation to the federal government of a distinctive Canadian flag.
4. Rural schools in all the provinces to be fostered.
5. Co-operation to replace competitive ideals in education.
6. French and English to be taught and encouraged in all Canadian universities and secondary schools.
7. The federal government to assume its share of the responsibility of educating the alien immigrant.
8. The frank and open discussion by those in authority of all disciplinary cases in the teaching profession involving reduction in rank or dismissal.

9. Approval of the auxiliary educational agencies such as Cadets, Boy Scouts, and Girl Guides.
10. Proper supervision of theaters and moving-picture shows.

Other resolutions were passed, among the more important of them being those insisting upon the importance of moral and spiritual training as a basis for Canadian citizenship.

It was a great thing for us to have this conference, to recognize the fundamental principles conditioning good citizenship, and to get together in a national effort at evolving means of enlarging, extending, clarifying, re-affirming, and transmitting the essential principles underlying Canadian welfare.

E. K. MARSHALL

PORTAGE LA PRAIRIE, MANITOBA

CHICAGO AROUSED

After the courts had reinstated Dr. Chadsey in the superintendency of Chicago schools with the declaration that it was the duty of the members of the Board of Education under their oaths of office to co-operate with him, it required a good deal of boldness to take the next step which was taken. The board at its meeting on November 25 refused to listen to a report which the superintendent had prepared and passed rules transferring to the assistant superintendents the powers which the law confers on the superintendent. After this action Mr. Chadsey resigned on the ground that he would not be a mere figure-head and that there was no possibility of his rendering useful service under existing conditions of political domination of the schools.

The board at the same meeting demoted Assistant Superintendent Armstrong who had been carrying on for some time the work of the central office in so far as it related to the high schools of the city. Mr. Armstrong recently organized one of the most productive all-day conferences of high-school teachers that has ever been held in Chicago. He organized a new and broad course for the commercial classes in the high schools and otherwise showed himself while in office to be a progressive and independent officer.

How the thinking people of Chicago react to all this is shown in the editorials which immediately followed. Two of these are reproduced herewith, the first from the *Chicago Tribune*, the second from the *Chicago Evening Post*:

A SHAME IN PERPETUITY?

For at least a generation in Chicago and probably longer, the board of education has been a free fight with no holds barred. Of all political bodies, this one intrusted with the discipline and training of future citizens has shown itself the least disciplined and the least trained.

The life and works of the board proceed with the restraint of a Hottentot war dance, and the scandal of it grows with the years it is indulged.

Members, year by year, seem wholly engrossed with their private feuds and management concerns itself with licking the other fellow. Frequently more policemen are needed to keep order in the rooms of the board of education than were required in the toughest dance hall in the toughest days in the toughest part of Chicago.

The board is in court with the frequency of an habitual offender. Men and women are thrown off and reinstated, superintendents are hired and fired. The amenities and the sanities of life are checked at the door. The board is a brawl. Its essence is disorder.

This is the body which has to do with the discipline, instruction, and training of youth. It serves its purpose by impressing every school child old enough to read the newspapers with the idea that the school managers are worse than the most disorderly child in the least controlled classroom, that hair pulling and shin kicking are adult pleasures.

A demoralization of the school system results. The brawls of the board affect the morale of the principals and teachers. That is transmitted to the pupils. Education in Chicago is corrupted at its source.

The shame of it is appalling and pathetic. Even the least considerate brand of politics frequently keeps hands off fundamentals such as school management. There is virtually nothing politics can gain from the board of education. The member of the board who could deliver a precinct is a rarity. But there is no public body in the state so lost to all ideas of political decency as the Chicago board of education.

We wish the city could open the window and throw the board out, its system and its methods, everything belonging to it, air the rooms, and forget that it ever existed.

Possibly we can get relief in a new constitution. Lawrence Y. Sherman used to say of a man he did not like that he was a—something unmentionable—by choice. Is this by the city's choice?

CHICAGO'S DISGRACE

Chicago's crime record is bad enough. The gangs of burglars and automobile bandits who prey upon decent citizens are a discredit to us. But crime is crime—it pretends to be nothing else.

A greater disgrace is Chicago's alleged school board—an aggregation of administration puppets which, professing in loud words a devotion to the interests of Chicago's youth, practices every trick known to disreputable politics in order to serve its master.

The treatment of Dr. Chadsey, an educationalist who holds foremost place among men of attainment in his sphere, has been unspeakably indecent. It shames Chicago in the eyes of the nation.

But worse than the treatment of Dr. Chadsey is the treatment of the schools and the children.

Our sense of courtesy and fair play is outraged by the injuries and insults heaped on an eminent American, who came to Chicago under the earnest urging of many of our most intelligent and progressive citizens, eager to do for the schools what his long experience fitted him to do; but our sense of public welfare, of responsibility in the discharge of the greatest trust which a city can impose upon any group of its citizens—the care of its childhood—is stirred to indignation by the manner in which these puppets betray that trust.

Surely, it is more than time the intelligent people of Chicago united in protest against this wicked policy. What legal recourse may be had is a question for lawyers and courts, but the moral issue involved is one upon which every good citizen should be heard.

The situation has its sinister aspects on the professional side. The Board of Education could not and would not go its reckless way if it did not command the services of like-minded servants. The consequences for the future of the schools are not obscure when the professional officers of a system are willing to set aside the rights which a new statute grants to professional experts. The rights of Mr. Chadsey which have been trampled upon are not the rights of an individual; they are the rights of a statutory officer. How can those who have been party to an utter disregard of every one of these rights expect at any future time to defend them successfully against assault by others whose selfish motives may dictate their annulment?

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION SURVEY OF THE INTERCHURCH
WORLD MOVEMENT

One of the products of the war is the recognition by the churches of the need and value of large-scale efforts at co-operation. This recognition is expressed in the Interchurch World Movement of which S. Earl Taylor is the general secretary. The work of the survey department of this movement is of interest to educators. One of the divisions of this department is given over to the survey of American religious education under the direction of Professor Walter S. Athearn of Boston University, known for his experiments in Malden, Massachusetts. This division has entered upon a large program for the survey. It includes a study of all the agencies

which may be regarded as contributing to religious education. In making this survey experts who have been engaged in the development of survey technique in the field of secular education have been called upon for advice and co-operation. Already a very extensive program for the survey of physical equipment has been laid out. This comprises many pages of typewritten questions. Another section deals with individual accounting. Under this head will be studied the population census of the community and the educational census of local churches. A third important division deals with the curriculum. This will include an analysis of the current courses of study, and this analysis will be followed by a group of tests which are designed to determine how successfully the content of the curriculum is taught. Other sections of the survey cover the organization and administration, supervision, the personnel, and finance. Besides these divisions of the study of the work in the schools there are topics which deal with religious education in the home and community, inter-denominational relations, special groups, and special studies.

The aim of the inquiry in general is not simply to determine what is being done but also to make constructive criticisms. The statistical aspect of the work is being carefully guarded. This, the first thorough accounting of the present situation, gives prospect of very enlightening information with reference to this important, but rather aimless and probably very inefficient, form of social activity. In secular education surveys have revealed much unevenness in efficiency and much general inefficiency in spite of the relatively expert scrutiny to which it has been subjected for generations. When we consider that nearly all our religious education is in the hands of unsupervised amateurs, astonishing revelations may be expected.

STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS

No one can attend meetings of teachers these days without carrying away a vivid impression of the restlessness which has taken hold of the profession. There is a tenseness about the election of officers and about the adoption of resolutions which shows that issues of importance and issues with a strong personal appeal are in the air. There is an emphasis on reports of committees on reorganization and on teachers' salaries which makes

it evident that the political urge and the economic urge are having their full influence. In the midst of this boiling situation there is a strong effort being made to swing the organized teachers into line for concerted action.

The example of Minnesota is one of the most encouraging as exhibiting what constructive leadership will do to turn all this restlessness into right channels. At the recent state association meeting in that state there was a strong effort on the part of the Teachers' Federation to get control. The official organizer of the federation was present, and representatives of the local unions in Minneapolis and St. Paul were active. In the course of events Professor L. D. Coffman was nominated for the presidency of the association. This brought matters to a definite issue because Mr. Coffman's position is fully understood from his frequent and lucid statements on radicalism.

In order to make sure that the next stage of the matter is correctly reported the writer of this editorial asked Professor Coffman to state what passed between him and the leaders of the federation. His statement is as follows:

I received a long letter from the representatives of the unions asking my attitude on the American Federation of Teachers, on collective bargaining, and on the scheme prepared for the reorganization of the state association. I replied to the questions at some length, taking the position that I favored an American Federation of Teachers but not an American Federation of Teachers affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. I also took the stand that we could not favor collective bargaining among teachers if that means that teachers would bargain for uniform salaries to be administered in a uniform way, or if it means that they would use coercion or the strike to gain their point. I favor collective bargaining in the sense that any organized group of teachers should prepare its program and be privileged to present that program with all the vigor and force it can command to the administrative authorities of the schools and to the public.

Mr. Coffman was elected president of the association—a result which shows that teachers recognize the strength of such a position as Mr. Coffman took in his platform. That position has the virtue of ignoring nothing that is essential and boldly rejecting all that is unprofessional.

NEWS ITEMS FROM SECONDARY SCHOOLS

AN EFFICIENCY DEPARTMENT

Bay City, Michigan.—The public schools of Bay City are perhaps the first in the country to organize an efficiency department. Not in any sense a research department, but is created for the single purpose of measuring the educational output of the public schools of the city.

Scheme, an adaptation of the modern factory plan of measuring output and of determining quality. Result of the application of the plan in Bay City has been a steady rise in the efficiency of the system from an average of 47 per cent in the first semester of the year 1915-16 to an average of 87 per cent in the last semester of the year 1918-19.

Tests cover all schools, all grades, all subjects, and have from the first been of increasing difficulty. They are based on the law of averages, and after each test reports are made to the principals covering not only the work of the teachers in their own buildings but also that of every teacher in the system. Comparisons can thus be made and conclusions drawn by each principal regarding the work of each of her teachers. The scheme has the merit of being a constant survey, not a spasmodic "squint" into the work of the schools.

Miss Adelaide Lawrence, head of the department, has been asked to prepare an exposition of the plan as it has been applied in the Bay City schools. This exposition will appear in a later number of the *School Review*.

FRANK A. GAUSE

COMBINATION SYSTEM OF SUPERVISED STUDY,
VARYING SCOPE OF WORK, AND WEIGHTED CREDIT

Riverview Union High School, Antioch, California.—This year put into operation a combination scheme providing for individual differences in capacities and interests and at the same time crediting toward graduation in proportion to individual achievement. More prominent features: (1) specific statement in each subject concerning the scope and character of work which a student of average ability should be able to accomplish when working up to

his reasonable capacity, i.e., the general requirements for the medium grade, B, which entitles the student to 1.0 unit of credit; (2) careful enumeration of the characteristics of excellent work entitling the student to the A grade which carries with it 1.1 units credit; (3) general statement of the extra scope of work which the student of superior ability, interest, initiative, and application may do along the lines of his special interests in satisfaction of the extra requirements for the AA grade which entitles him to 1.2 units credit; (4) special encouragement and direction for the student of extraordinary ability, interest, application, and achievement in doing an original piece of work related to the subject for which he may be entitled to 1.3 units credit; (5) provisions for diminished credit for inferior work; (6) full-hour class period the first half of which is given to recitation and discussion and the last half to supervised study enabling the teacher not only to give attention to the backward student in bringing him as nearly as possible up to the medium standard but also to direct and supervise the extra efforts of the more capable student along the lines of his special interests.

The crediting values of the marks used in this system are: AAA, 1.3; AA, 1.2; A, 1.1; B, 1.0; C, .9; D, .8; E, .7; F, 0.

The distribution of marks under this system for the first two months of its operation is as follows:

Period	AAA	AA	A	B	C	D	E	F
First month.....	0%	0.5%	10%	49%	27.5%	9%	2.9%	1%
Second month.....	0%	4.0%	16%	48%	26%	5%	1%	0%

W. H. HUGHES

News Items from the School of Education of the University of Chicago

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO DINNER

The University of Chicago Dinner which is held each year in connection with the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association will be held at 6:30 P.M., Tuesday, February 24, 1920, in the Electrical League Dining-Room on the fourteenth floor of the Statler Hotel, Cleveland, Ohio.

This annual gathering of former students and alumni of the University has become increasingly popular and successful during recent years. It provides an excellent opportunity for students to meet former friends and classmates and to learn of the activities and developments at the University. A very interesting program is being organized. Members of the faculty will discuss recent developments in the University and progressive changes in the Department of Education. Students who have taken work in the Kindergarten-Primary Department will be interested to learn that Miss Alice Temple will be one of the speakers. Prominent alumni of the University will discuss topics of special interest to all former students. Mr. Matthew Willing, who received his Master's degree in 1916, is arranging a series of musical numbers for the evening's program.

A most cordial invitation is extended to all former students and alumni to attend the dinner. The price per plate is \$2.00. Please send reservations to the Alumni Committee of the School of Education as early as possible. Secure tickets at the desk of the Statler Hotel, Monday, February 23, or no later than 10:00 A.M., Tuesday, February 24.

AN ENGLISH VOCABULARY TEST

A test designed to measure the growth in English vocabulary of first-year pupils in the high school has been prepared by W. L. Carr and H. F. Scott of the Latin Department of the University High School. The test consists of fifty fairly difficult words of a

somewhat literary character, chosen largely from the reading materials covered in first-year English. Half of these words are derived from, or are etymologically related to, Latin words usually included in first-year Latin work. The remainder of the words are of non-Latin origin.

One object of the test is to determine how far the study of Latin functions as an aid in increasing and making more accurate the pupil's vocabulary in English. During the current year the test will be given twice to about two thousand pupils in various parts of the country in order to secure a measure of the progress which is made. A report of the results which were secured from a similar test was published in the October number of the *Classical Journal* under the title, "The English Vocabulary of the High School Freshman."

A SURVEY REPORT OF COMMERCIAL EDUCATION

No. 5 of Volume II of the *Supplementary Educational Monographs* is ready for distribution. It is entitled "A Survey of Commercial Education in the Public High Schools of the United States," by Leverett S. Lyon, instructor in the School of Commerce and Administration of the University of Chicago.

In the earlier sections of the monograph the following topics are discussed in detail: the kinds of commercial courses in public high schools, the length of such courses, the required subjects in each course, and the relative importance of technical and content subjects in commercial courses.

Inasmuch as the study is based on an investigation of commercial education in one hundred and thirty-six high schools in twenty-six different states, it is the most extensive study of its kind which has yet been made. Special consideration is given in the monograph to the social-business subjects. Such discussions are particularly appropriate in view of the increased importance, during recent years, to the business world of a thorough knowledge of commercial organization, economics, accounting, commercial law, and business organization.

One of the final chapters entitled "Plans and Policies in Secondary Commercial Work" discusses the significant needs of commercial education in a thoroughly constructive way. The monograph will prove very suggestive to superintendents and high-school principals who have supervision of commercial courses. It should be read by teachers of all phases of commercial education.

SOME ASPECTS OF A JUNIOR COLLEGE

C. C. ALEXANDER and G. W. WILLETT
Hibbing, Minnesota

What is a junior college? At least three types of institutions have been called junior colleges by one or another writer. First, the freshman and sophomore years of the ordinary college course are designated by many universities as the junior college. Secondly, certain minor colleges in some of the states, notably Missouri, have found themselves unable to cope with the increasing outlay necessary to meet the requirements set by standardizing associations and state legislatures for institutions offering a complete college or university course. Hence, many of these institutions have arranged to give only two years of work and of such a nature as to articulate well with the upper two years of regular college courses. Such institutions are called junior colleges. Thirdly, in an increasing number of communities there is a demand for post-graduate work in high school or for an extension of the high school to include the first or first and second years of the college. The most common expansion includes both the first and second years. This extension of high school, or this adding of two years to the usual four years of high-school work, comprises the junior college as discussed throughout this article.

The junior college of this type probably first originated in definite form at Joliet, Illinois, under Principal J. Stanley Brown of the Township High School. It has since spread to a number of states but has received its highest development in California. In California, the junior college has a definite legal standing and receives state aid directly according to law. In Minnesota, a number of junior colleges have been organized as integral parts of public-school systems. Rochester, Faribault, Jackson, Cloquet, Eveleth, and Hibbing have all attempted the organization of such an institution. In this state, there is no legal recognition of the junior college as an institution, but the school revenue laws are of such a nature as to make it possible for a community to determine upon its own

ever { school expenditures above those necessary to meet certain minimum requirements. The University of Minnesota has taken cognizance of the growth of the junior college in the state and has willingly accepted the work of standardization in so far as it may be determined by inspection and accrediting of work. To facilitate the work of standardization the university has published a pamphlet setting forth the conditions which should be met by the new institutions in order that they may be properly prepared to articulate with the work of the junior year at the university. In one way, the states of California and Minnesota are much alike. Both states are large and in both the institutions of higher learning are so located that the potential student from a large share of the state lives many miles from a higher institution other than a normal school. Dr. F. E. Bolton shows in a recent article, and many reports on individual colleges confirm the statement, that far the larger number of students attending an institution come from the immediate vicinity of the institution. Hence, if many pupils are to continue their education they need to have the institution near their homes. Dr. Bolton says:

To take the means of higher education to the people is one way of insuring its attractiveness. That people will take greater advantage of higher education the nearer it is brought to them is easy of illustration. Comparatively few receive high-school training unless the high school is practically at their doors. Relatively few go from strictly rural districts to the village high schools. The small city with the same population as a given rural area sends probably ten times as many as the country. . . . By extending the high-school curricula two years, undoubtedly there would be a great increase in the number who secure at least that much of college work. How great the increase would be is entirely unpredictable, but so great as to astonish even the boldest dreamers.

note { It is hardly necessary to discuss the purposes of the junior college. They are readily apparent from the advantages claimed for the institution. In an address before the National Education Association in 1917, Superintendent I. I. Cammack, of Kansas City, Missouri, gave the following as the desirable results which would grow out of a general introduction of the institution:

It will make it possible for thousands of young men and women to obtain a college education who otherwise would find it beyond their power. It will permit other thousands to get such an education without leaving home. It will reduce to a very considerable extent the expenses of education beyond the traditional high school. It will offer an incentive to the ambitious boy and girl to reach a higher

plane of preparation than is possible under the present system. It will make possible an adaptation of preparation to the local demands not now existing. It will enable the universities to confine their attention to legitimate university work. It will meet the present demand for preparation along agricultural, industrial, and commercial lines through the channels of public education without requiring the student to leave his home.

Dr. Bolton suggests that the direct articulation of the junior college and the high school should tend to avoid needless duplication of certain work both by institutions and by the students attending the institutions. He further suggests that courses would be more likely to be varied to meet the needs of those who never plan to complete the university but who do desire further education in some certain fields. He thinks that more students would continue their education in graduate schools.

The greatest gain, however, would result from carrying the student two additional years at home at a critical period. Without every possible inducement to continue study after high-school graduation, the chances are all in favor of abandoning forever the student career. The fewer the stopping places offered in school work, the greater the assurance of its continuance.

In addition to the above advantages our experience leads us to add the following: (1) The cost of living at the present time is so high as to make it far more difficult for ambitious students with limited means to "make their way" through college. (2) Because of small classes conditions are particularly favorable for giving individual attention and help when needed. (3) High-school students have opportunities of seeing some of the actual possibilities of further study. Better work results in high-school subjects in order to prepare for later college years. The leaven affects even students not intending to enter college. (4) Brighter pupils are enabled to begin some work in college before the actual completion of all work of the senior year. (5) The very fact of having an institution in the community which gives work of university standing tends to raise the cultural tone of the community.

On the other hand junior colleges suffer from certain limitations:

1. Some communities will attempt to introduce the college work when the financial situation of the school system will not justify it. This mistake may be disastrous for either of two reasons:

a) The financial strain may be so severe as to make it necessary to take from the lower schools the revenue actually needed for their

adequate support. Many small communities now try as a matter of civic pride to maintain a four-year high school to the detriment of their entire school system. Some communities have already made this mistake with the junior college.

b) There may be ample funds for maintaining the usual grade schools and high school with a small surplus. This does not necessarily mean that a community should attempt to introduce the college. The expense of introduction and maintenance of the college is much greater per pupil than is that even of the senior year in high school. Requirements of preparation of teachers and of teaching hours for the faculty, equipment, and in fact all phases of the work force the cost element higher. At the same time, in no place in the entire school system is unsatisfactory work as much to be deplored as in the college. The college student must not be deceived into thinking he is getting something that is worth while when he is not. The college student is a conscious adult seeker after truth and a month is often more valuable than a year earlier in life. No institutions should be permitted to offer pseudo-college courses.

2. Even in communities where the wealth is sufficient to support the work adequately, the source of supply of students must be considered. There needs to be a sufficient number of students to allow for some real student activities and for the development of some real school spirit in the college, otherwise the college will be, of necessity, considered a sort of dead appendage to the live high school and as a result will fail to appeal to a large share of the students who should be profiting most from it.

3. Each college should have much of its nature determined for it by its clientele. To some extent local conditions should color the direction of certain courses that should be given, but they should never become so dominant as to cause the institution to fail to articulate with other higher institutions. Much is said about rebelling against university domination of our schools, but the school cannot afford to be so radical in rebellion as to cause its own product to suffer because of the lack of articulation.

The junior college must secure a large share of its students directly from the high school with which it is connected. Experience seems to indicate that the best organization of these upper years of the system is found when they are united with the high

school under one principal and with many of the teachers teaching in both the college and the high school. W. H. Hughes reporting on the California plan says:

A more rational plan, generally adopted by the upward extension schools in California, is the assignment of junior-college subjects to the heads of the various high-school departments who continue to teach at least a part of the time in the grades of the high school proper. This plan of faculty organization makes possible a greater variety of junior-college courses, greater efficiency in the teaching of the more advanced subjects, better understanding and co-operation between the upper and lower divisions, and a more unified system of secondary education. The principles of continuity and unity also justify the general practice in California of placing the high school and the junior college under one supervisory and administrative head. The principal is the logical head of the reorganized secondary school.¹

Professor Alexander Lange, of the University of California, has expressed virtually the same opinion.

That the junior college must make it possible for those of its students who so desire to go on through a standard university has already been mentioned. Hence it is evident that the junior college occupies the middle ground between the high school and the junior year of the university. What it accomplishes must be built on what the high school has already done and must, for a large percentage of its students, be directed by what the university courses will offer in succeeding years. At present most courses in most junior colleges must of necessity be close approximations of the courses offered in the universities. The type of students who come into a junior college and the plans they have for the future should largely determine the courses given. As yet there is little need in most cases to lament over the fact that the junior college is largely university preparatory. The students of most of our junior colleges expect to attend the university and should therefore have such courses as will enable them to do so without loss of time or credits. With the growth of appreciation of the worth of education beyond the high school that is sure to follow the establishing of the college work in the community, there will come requests for other types of work. Then is the time to begin establishing such types of work. Artificially stimulated school courses, even though they be worthy and well taught, are like hothouse plants—uncertain as to fruitage.

¹ W. H. HUGHES, "Junior College Development," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, V (1919), 194.

The junior college of Hibbing was established on the recommendation of the superintendent by the Hibbing board of education in 1916 as an actual part of the Hibbing school system. The college opened in the autumn with an enrolment of about twenty-five students. During the year 1917-18 there was an enrolment of approximately forty students. The war very greatly decreased this number during 1918-19. It has again increased until this year there are more than seventy students taking part- or full-time work. Requirements for entering as a regular student are the same as for the various courses at the University of Minnesota, although any person is permitted to enter any class for which he has requisite preparation. Graduation is granted to students who have secured sixty semester hours' credit and have made at least sixty honor points. No degree is granted but a diploma is issued. To any student not meeting the requirements for graduation a certificate covering the work done is issued. Several have graduated and are now doing satisfactory work in leading universities. The college is regularly inspected each year by committees from the University of Minnesota. Classes are limited to not more than twenty students with an attempt to keep all classes at fifteen or under. The length of recitation period is fifty-seven minutes in the clear. The length of year is forty weeks. No college credit is given for any work taken in a high-school class. Seniors who lack less than four credits of graduation from high school and whose high-school record has been excellent are permitted to take their excess work in college. At present eighteen out of eighty-five Seniors are availing themselves of this opportunity. The effect of this arrangement is noticeable even in the early years of high school as capable youngsters are making extra effort and planning their courses in order to be fitted for entering the junior college early. Incidentally, it occurs that the best students out of each graduating class thus receive a taste of actual college work and are not satisfied with graduation from high school alone. The honor students of the last three high-school classes are regular students in the junior college this year.

The college maintains the following departments: mathematics, romance languages, Latin, English, chemistry, biology, political science and economics, history, engineering, and physical training.

During this semester regular work is offered as follows: rhetoric, English survey, Latin (fifth year), French I, French II, Spanish I, Spanish II, college algebra, solid geometry, analytical geometry, trigonometry, calculus, electrical engineering I, electrical engineering II, descriptive geometry, machine drawing, general chemistry, advanced general chemistry, zoölogy, botany, modern history, English history, economics, physical and commercial geography, physical training for women, physical training for men, technology, and shop work.

All subjects enumerated above are organized on college credit bases. Any individual who has completed high school may take some of these subjects and also take subjects in high school if desired, but the high-school subjects do not give advanced college credit. There are always some students reaching across in this way. Certain of the subjects are offered as extension courses in night school under the regular college instructors. Descriptive geometry, varied courses in higher mathematics, chemistry, electrical engineering, Spanish, and French are usually so given. College credit however is seldom received for such work although some students have completed work in this manner. Liberal arts, pre-legal, pre-medical, pre-dental, engineering, and commerce courses are maintained by the college. At the present time there are students pursuing each of the above courses. Engineering has the heaviest enrolment among the men who, by the way, exceed the women in the ratio of about two to one this year.

The faculty of a junior college is one of the most important, if not the most important, feature of the organization. On the preparation of the faculty depends the value of the information which it can impart. On the ability of the instructors as instructors rests the probability of the understanding and retention of the subject-matter imparted. On the breadth of view of the instructors hangs the possibility of wise guidance in vocational and avocational choices among the students. Certain requirements must be met if these conditions are to prevail. The University of Minnesota has suggested that any instructor in a junior college should have at least a Master's degree in the field in which he or she is to instruct. It further suggests that an instructor should not attempt to teach in more than two distinct fields. Not more than three different subjects should be taught by a college instruc-

tor and the total number of hours per week should not exceed fifteen. To this list of requirements Hibbing has added that at least two years of successful teaching elsewhere should precede junior-college teaching. At present there are six men and eight women instructors who devote part- or full-time to the junior college, aside from the principal or director who is also principal of the six-year high school. Each instructor has at least a Master's degree. The institutions having granted these degrees include Syracuse, South Dakota, Wisconsin, Harvard, Chicago, Minnesota, Michigan, Iowa, and Illinois. All but four of the instructors teach part-time in college and part-time in high school. The local experience justifies this reaching across just as Hughes reports to be the case in California. Instructors who give any high-school work and also teach college work are likewise limited to fifteen or sixteen hours teaching per week. All instructors spend many hours in personal conferences with individual students. Students and faculty mingle in a mutually beneficial way as the student gets the "personal touch" with the instructor and the instructor gets personally acquainted with the student and his needs. A large study-hall and conference room give splendid opportunity for such contact. An advantage of special importance comes from the same instructor teaching both college and high-school subjects through the impetus to further study that is given to a high-school class by a college instructor. Almost every student now enrolled in junior college received the inspiration for getting a higher education from some faculty member who could give some insight into what lay ahead. Bonds of sympathy are needed to cement the two organizations which should be united into one. The ultimate goal for many high schools might well be to lead their pupils to see that graduation should come at the end of the fourteenth rather than at the end of the twelfth year. Such a goal can only be established when there is unity and coherence throughout.

In an earlier paragraph, the statement was made that there should be a sufficient number of students in a junior college to give opportunity for some distinctive college activities. In the Hibbing Junior College such activities have been established. Athletic teams are maintained and regular schedules are arranged with other schools of normal or college caliber. Literary societies and clubs and other usual college organizations contribute to the college

life. Convocations with speakers and varied programs are held once in six weeks. The Seniors of the high school are invited guests at all convocations. College teas are held monthly. Invitations to the teas are issued to various groups of people in the community from time to time. The social life of the college is on a higher plane than that of the high school and accordingly makes an appeal to the average high-school Senior. Seniors consider it an honor to be invited to participate in or to attend any college function. Such an attitude was not present until the college had shown that its activities are of real worth. Numbers are necessary if the college activities are to have real worth.

Have the advantages claimed for the junior college materialized in Hibbing? Has the attempt been worth while? Time has been too short and conditions too abnormal to permit an unqualified answer. Something, however, can be given as evidence of success. A comparison with the forecast of Superintendent Cammack is enlightening. More boys and girls are enabled to get an education than could do so otherwise. At least twenty-six students out of the number regularly enrolled in the junior college at present would not have in any way considered securing an education above high school without the opportunity offered by the junior college. At least ten others were very doubtful in the matter. The lists include the leading students of the high school for the past three years. Several students have been enabled to get their first two years here while still too young to leave home. Tuition, textbooks, laboratories, libraries, supplies, and transportation are furnished free and enable many to secure the two years' work with virtually no expense. Pupils as low as the seventh grade are heard repeatedly to say, "I'm going to go right on through the junior college and then I can make my way the last two years at the university." Is an ideal of this sort worth while in a community? The engineering work represents a variation of work to meet an insistent call from the mining interest of the community.

With Dr. Bolton we agree that "the greatest gain, however, results from carrying the student two additional years at home at a critical period," and from giving to the younger pupils an ideal of the possibilities of a higher education, especially from giving such an ideal to the brighter groups of such pupils causing them to really make an effort to get ready for what lies ahead.

What is the future of the junior college? Time alone can tell, but statistics offer evidence of what to expect. High-school population increased 500 per cent between 1890 and 1915 in the United States. Senior classes increased even more rapidly in numbers. In Hibbing, the increase in high-school enrolment has been over 100 per cent in the past four years. With senior classes nearing the century mark, the future of the Hibbing Junior College seems indeed bright. Hibbing, five or six years ago, could not point to a single high-school graduate that had completed a four-year university course. At present there are in various universities and the junior college seventy of its high-school graduates from the classes of 1916, 1917, 1918, and 1919 planning to complete such courses.

Students are urged to secure a college education. No attempt is made to urge anyone to enter the local institution, but the value of college training can be impressed upon the high-school student when he sees its effects upon others about him. The raising of an attainable ideal before an ambitious boy means more than telling him to hitch his wagon to a star or that he may become president of the United States of America.

The junior college makes necessary additional funds for financing a school system. But the added revenue is willingly furnished by the community on the grounds that the junior-college graduate is a valuable asset to the community. Hibbing is proud of its junior college.

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THE BEN BLEWETT JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL OF ST. LOUIS—PART I

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The Ben Blewett Jun or High School of St. Louis is a school of 1,350 pupils and a teaching staff of 15 men and 41 women, situated in one of the residential districts of the city. The pupils come mainly from well-to-do families, only 15 per cent of them of foreign-born parents, and a large majority of them planning to enter the Senior High School situated in an adjoining block. This fact must be borne in mind in considering the organization, the curriculum, and the methods of instruction provided by Blewett. Obviously a junior high school in a residential district of such an order faces problems very different from those which will confront some of the other seven junior high schools now projected for St. Louis.

The school is housed in a three-story building, the basement of which is given over to manual-training shops, domestic-science workrooms, including a model middle-class city apartment, a girls' gymnasium, and a large lunchroom. The first floor has offices, classrooms, laboratories, study hall, dressmaking and art rooms; the second, classrooms, commercial rooms, laboratories, and library; the third, classrooms, laboratories, music rooms, boys' gymnasium, and an auditorium seating 800. A spacious playground, laid out with athletic fields of various sorts, covers a city block. The entire plant, modern throughout, provides ample accommodations for the varied activities of a school whose keynote is education for democracy through democratizing school life. And even the excellent Blewett plant is inferior in many respects to the general average of St. Louis school plants; the city boasts of having one of the best-housed school systems in the country.

ARTICULATION WITH GRADE AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Blewett is an intermediate link between five elementary schools and Soldan Senior High School, all the schools drawing their pupils from the same general district. From any of the schools come

children to the seventh grade of Blewett who have finished the first six grades, and any others who the elementary-school principals think will be benefited by the change. Flexible promotion, each child advancing at his optimum rate, progress according to maturing age and interests rather than exact academic attainment, the advantage of experience in a new grade rather than repetition of an old grade, appears to be the principle employed. This educational practice, stated by Mr. P. W. L. Cox, principal of Blewett, in conference with his elementary-school colleagues, is as follows:

The junior high school purposes to take the pupils where the elementary school leaves off; the junior high school's point of view is that *all children* are entitled to the fullest and richest educational opportunities possible. Therefore, the junior high school believes that there is an inverse relation between high average scholarship and school efficiency and that high average scholarship means the undemocratic selection of the fit judged according to an artificial standard. Finally, the junior high school accepts, welcomes gladly, not only nice, bright children who have had high marks in the sixth grade, but just as willingly, any children over twelve years, good or bad, dull or bright. It intends to be an educational institution, not a selective instrument.

The same spirit shows also in the transfer of pupils from Blewett to Soldan Senior High. All pupils are promoted who are over sixteen years of age and who the teachers believe will be benefited by the transfer. In all subjects the Junior High sets up certain standards of achievement or definite statements of work completed by pupils who are to go forward to the tenth grade at Soldan. This is a three-year senior high school requiring for graduation twelve units of work within the prescription of definite curricula.

All pupils promoted to Soldan from Blewett are accepted as tenth-grade pupils, except certain groups who have entered Junior High in November (second quarter) or in April (fourth quarter). They are conditioned in a half-course in vocations; they have $12\frac{1}{2}$ units of work to complete for graduation. In short, Blewett does not present a record of a number of hours spent by pupils in given subjects; instead, she assures the Senior High School that the pupils have had certain educational experiences, and through these experiences have attained a given standard of skill.

GROUPINGS FOR VARYING ABILITIES AND INTERESTS

An essential feature in the organization of the student body attempts to meet one of the primary purposes for which a junior

high school exists, namely, the grouping of pupils according to their varying capacities and interests.¹ Differing intellectual abilities are cared for by what is known as the "A B C grouping," varying educational preferences and vocational aptitudes by the "x, y, z grouping," and varying social interests by the "m, n, o grouping." Of these, the intellectual classification is tentatively determined in the early part of the seventh grade by means of the opinions of the elementary-school principals checked up by intelligence tests.² The tentative classification is modified later by the judgment of pupils advisers as the work of the first quarter advances. The x, y, z grouping for vocational aptitudes or, as Blewett prefers to designate it, for educational guidance, is determined at the beginning of the eighth grade, after one year of educational experimentation and prevocational investigation, in accord with vocational choices. These eighth- and ninth-grade choices are made by the pupils with the advice of teachers and the consent of parents by methods to be detailed later. The m, n, o groupings, intended primarily to bring about, in social activities, cross sections of the other two types of groupings, in actual practice have been found to be somewhat superfluous. Spontaneous and natural associations of playground and extra-curriculum activities apparently break indiscriminately across intellectual and vocational groupings. Children of like size, age, and play instincts find their way into recreational groups quite irrespective of mere formal school classifications. In Blewett, at least, the fear of certain opponents of the Junior High, to the effect that harmful social distinctions may be emphasized, seems not to be realized.

PUPIL ADVISERS

Another administrative feature provides that each group of pupils retain throughout their stay in the school the same classroom teacher who is also their class adviser. Moreover, within any one grade each group comes under the instruction of a limited number of teachers, and an effort is made to keep a group under the instruction of the same small circle of teachers through all the grades. This arrangement accomplishes two purposes: first, a

¹ PHILIP W. L. COX, "The Ben Blewett Junior High School: An Experiment in Democracy," *School Review*, XXVII (May, 1919), 345-59.

² Tests used in 1919-20 are Thorndike, scale Alpha, sets IV to VII and Kelly-Trabue, scale C.

classroom teacher becomes intimately acquainted with the group of thirty-five children whom she accompanies; secondly, the judgment of four or five teachers all continuously working with the same group of 140 pupils may at any time be called upon concerning a troublesome case. To be noted here, also, is the fact that progress with her group means that no teacher has a fixed room. She changes from quarter to quarter as her special group advances in the curriculum. In general, ninth-grade classes occupy the first-floor classrooms, the eighth the second, and the seventh the third-floor rooms. Therefore when a classroom teacher has taken one group through the ninth grade, she begins the cycle again with a seventh-grade class. As the scheme of accelerated promotion carries A groups through three grades in two years, the B groups in two and one-half years, and the C groups in three years, some teachers accomplish their cycles in shorter time than others.

PROVISIONS FOR ACCELERATING PROGRESS

In accord with a principle named above, the school is carefully organized to provide for the saving of time on the part of pupils of marked ability. The A groups accomplish in two years as much as, or more than, the C groups in three. In every subject there is a certain minimum which all must cover; an A class or an AB class not only covers that minimum more rapidly, but it also extends the work widely into supplementary projects. For example, all eighth-year classes in general science are expected to accomplish as a minimum all of the projects set forth in the class textbook. In addition the A groups find much time to spend in the supplementary projects at the end of each chapter. Occasionally rapid promotion is secured by the transfer of a pupil who has shown marked improvement to a more accelerated group in the same subject. Pupils are always transferred upward, never downward.

The table on the next page roughly indicates the relative advancement of three sections of A, B, and C levels of ability. The C sections advance four quarters per year, B sections five quarters, and A sections six quarters.

A second device for acceleration is found in a careful study of overage pupils in every group. After consultation with other instructors concerned, a class adviser makes periodically for the principal a careful report of each individual who is overage, together

with a recommendation concerning his transfer or promotion. Naturally very few overage children are found in A groups, while the C groups may sometimes include half of their number as overage pupils. In general, the policy is to push all retarded children forward as rapidly as possible and it is not infrequently found that one so promoted shows an increased zest and a marked improvement in his work. When they are 16 years old, all children are promoted into the tenth grade in the Senior High. Frequently they fail, but their promotion avoids the waste of their own time in lower grades, and the more than waste of time of the other children whom their presence would hamper.

Groups	First Year	Second Year	Third Year
A.....	7-1; 7-2; 7-3; 7-4; 8-1; 8-2.	8-3; 8-4; 9-1; 9-2; 9-3; 9-4.	Enter Senior High at end of two years.
B.....	7-1; 7-2; 7-3; 7-4; 8-1	8-2; 8-3; 8-4; 9-1; 9-2	9-3; 9-4. Enter Senior High at end of two and one-half years.
C.....	7-1; 7-2; 7-3; 7-4	8-1; 8-2; 8-3; 8-4	9-1; 9-2; 9-3; 9-4. Enter Senior High at end of three years.

A third device, intended to care for extreme cases of retardation, is euphemistically called The Rapid Advancement Class. These are pupils two and often three years overage who for various reasons have lagged far behind their comrades of like age. In charge of this group is one of the best teachers in the school. She uses a multitude of devices to stimulate earnest effort on the part of her charges, encouraging them, helping them in supervised study periods to overcome their special limitations. The goal constantly before them is early entrance into the Senior High School.

FACULTY ORGANIZATION

Blewett exemplifies a very decentralized plan of faculty organization and plan of administration. Each classroom teacher is responsible for the mechanical administration of his group; matters of attendance, tardiness, and discipline, are referred to the office only when an adviser believes that he himself is unable adequately to deal with them. Standing next in authority above the classroom teachers there is, for each grade, a grade administrator, whose

duties are to supervise the advisory period programs, to oversee social work, advisory periods, and auditorium sessions, and to authorize transfers and promotions within his grade. The school as a mechanical organization is in charge of the assistant principal who supervises records and reports, communication with other schools, requisition of supplies, and the like. The principal's chief function is that of an educational expert and leader encouraging, criticizing, directing both teachers and pupils.

General teachers' meetings are held on alternate Mondays for the discussion of reports made by various members of the faculty, subjects and leaders for their program being in charge of a faculty committee.

On alternate weeks the teachers meet by subject groups, under the leadership of department chairmen, with definite programs. In addition, many faculty committees meet frequently for specific purposes. The principal is ex-officio member of every committee, and takes his place in the ranks. Every teacher of every department is a free agent to make his best contribution toward developing efficient members of a democratic community. The ideal is that no teacher shall feel hampered by supervision and that every teacher shall feel that help is available for the improvement of the service he renders. This feature of academic freedom and initiative of the teaching force is set forth at length, because a faculty whose primary task is to inculcate democratic initiative and responsibility in 1,350 children must itself objectify that spirit.

STUDENT GOVERNMENT

By means of a school constitution provision is made for an elaborate organization of self-government on the part of the pupils. Beginning with room groups, or "advisory" groups as they are called, each chooses its own name and motto, such as Loyalty Hall.

"Loyal all to Junior High

And our motto is, 'We'll try.'"

Each elects a varying number of officers, a president, secretary, treasurer, thrift-stamp treasurer, reporter to *Junior Life*, the school paper, and sergeant-at-arms. These officials are charged with the general business and discipline of their room. Administrations, usually permanent for a year, may change at irregular intervals as occasion requires. The room organization is thus the democratic

unit upon which the government of the school rests. It is a town meeting form of control.

A school constitution prescribes the higher orders of government, each room electing two congressmen, a boy and girl, to the student congress, there being one congress for each grade under the supervision of the faculty grade administrator. Congresses meet at the call of the administrator and consider matters pertaining to student government, student interest, or other needs of the school. Congressmen report to their advisory groups such actions as may be taken.

The School Cabinet is a smaller body made up of the principal, assistant principal, the three grade administrators, one teacher from each grade chosen by the principal, one boy and one girl elected by each grade congress, and student delegates from the school paper, *Junior Life*, from the corridor officers, from the Blewett "B" Council, and from certain athletic, civic, and music clubs.

The passing of classes is supervised by corridor officers, selected from the boys of the school, who are given military rank from captain down, and who constantly wear large buttons indicating their rank and office. Such officers are in the charge of a teacher who is relieved of teaching one class. They direct all traffic in the building, assist in discipline at auditorium session, taking their position in conspicuous places, and maintain order at athletic contests on the playground. A few girls are on duty at the girls' locker-rooms.

A BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE CURRICULUM

SEVENTH GRADE—UNIFORM FOR ALL PUPILS

(A, B, C sections developed as work progresses)

Courses	Periods
Social Study.....	.5
English.....	.5
General Mathematics.....	.5
General Science.....	.2½
Music.....	.1½
Art.....	.1
Advisers' Periods.....	.5
Practical Arts.....	.2½
Physical Training.....	.2½

EIGHTH GRADE

Academic (s)	Periods	Commercial (y)	Periods	Technical (s)	Periods
1. Social Study.....	5 (A, B, C pupils.) 8-1 and 2, American history to 1876. 8- 3 and 4, modern so- cial problems.	1. Same..... Pupils grouped with academic and tech- nical pupils.	5	1. Same.....	5
2. English.....	5 (A, B, C pupils.)	2. Same.....	5	2. Same.....	5
3. Language.....	5 Latin, S p a n i s h , French, or (A pupils only may elect) Literature. (A, B, C pupils).	3. Bookkeeping..... Penmanship and spelling. (A and B pupils only.)	5	3. Shop Experiences 5 Woodworking, auto mechanics, electricity, print- ing, metal work. Office practice and commercial paper, penmanship, spel- ling, typewriting, filing, (A, B, C pupils).	
4. Mathematics.....	5 General m a t h e - m a t i c s : algebra, geometry, t r i g o - nometry, g r a p h s , arithmetic, loga- rithms, slide rule.	4. Mathematics..... Arithmetic, e q u a - tions, graphs, com- mercial organi- zation.	5	4. Mathematics....	5 Applied mathe- matics.
5. General Science... 5		5. Same.....	5	5. Applied Science. 5	
6. Allotments..... 5	Practical arts, ap- preciation of art, music, p h y s i c a l training.	6. Same.....	5	6. Same.....	5

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The technical curriculum above is in practical arts for boys.
Practical arts for girls substitutes as different items:

3. Practical Home and Store Experiences.....5
Dressmaking and millinery
Cooking
Sewing
Homekeeping
4. Applied Arithmetic.....5
Budgets and accounts
Commercial forms

In this grade, also, there are three other variations of the technical curriculum emphasizing mechanical drawing for boys, art for girls and boys, music for girls and boys. In each case the chief modifications are in items 3, 4, and 5, the changes calling for projects in which drawing, art, and music, respectively, are applied. In reality this elaborate classification of curricula of the technical order is not rigidly maintained. Boys in the manual-training group and girls in the domestic science group have in the eighth year differentiated courses in general science, while all others of the technical (z) and commercial (y) classifications are placed in the general science work as prescribed for the academic (x) groups.

The curriculum of the ninth grade is generally similar to that of the ninth grade of the four-year high schools of St. Louis. Content and method of industrial courses are less systematic and more practical. Modification and differentiation of courses in mathematics and science have been made, and the foreign languages, especially Latin, have been deformalized.

NINTH GRADE

Courses Required	Periods	Courses Elective	Periods
Community civics $\frac{1}{2}$ year.....	5	24-29 periods per week. A fifth subject may be taken in the first three curricula by special permission if a pupil makes 80 per cent or higher in every subject in preceding quarter.	
Vocations $\frac{1}{2}$ year.....	5		
English.....	5		
Chorus music.....	2		
Physical training.....	2		
General Curriculum		Two Electives	
As above.		Science.....	5
		Latin.....	5
		French.....	5
		Spanish.....	5
		Mathematics.....	5
Classical Curriculum		One Elective	
Latin.....	5	Science.....	5
		Mathematics.....	5
Scientific Curriculum		One Elective	
Botany $\frac{1}{2}$ year.....	5	Science.....	5
Physiology $\frac{1}{2}$ year.....	5	Mathematics.....	5
Algebra.....	5	Latin.....	5
Fine Arts Curriculum			
Art.....	10		

Manual-Training Curriculum	
Manual training.....	5
Mechanical drawing.....	5
Mathematics.....	5
Home Economics Curriculum	
Household arts.....	10
Science.....	5
Commercial Curriculum	
Bookkeeping.....	5
Arithmetic.....	3
Penmanship.....	2
	One Elective
	Science.....
	Mathematics.....
	Latin.....
	French.....
	Spanish.....

SOCIAL STUDIES

There can be no question but that Blewett is moving in the direction of exalting social studies to become the core of the Junior-High program. Social study is the primary subject required continuously throughout the entire course for five periods a week. Moreover, art, music, and certain other allotment subjects, even English itself, the only other continuous five-hour subject, are in Blewett considered as directly contributing to the social training which is thus prominent in the curriculum and is in marked evidence in all of the social activities of the school. A visitor is struck by the frequency with which there appear in many classrooms discussions of group obligations, democratic duties, and social responsibilities of the school life itself.

Social studies in the seventh grade correlate history and geography and consist of four series of ten projects each, one project weekly per quarter, under four major problems. (1) First quarter: the origin of American history as found in the civilization around the Mediterranean before 1500 A.D. Beginning with Egypt, the story emphasizes the contribution made by each country to the knowledge and experience that was necessary before an enterprise like a new route by sea to India could be undertaken. Typical questions are, what gave rise to early sea trade, what was the connection between commerce and colonization, what germ of independence existed in the city-state governments of Greece? All point to the leadership of Europe in the fifteenth century as a period of discovery and exploration. (2) Second quarter: struggle

for freedom and empire from 1492 to 1620. Here the endeavor is to stress the relative importance and inter-relationships of the struggles for political and religious freedom on the one hand and those for commercial and political empire on the other. (3) Third quarter: world affairs between 1620 and 1763 as influenced by the desires for political and economic freedom, for wealth and economic independence, and for commercial and political empire. (4) Fourth quarter: the war of American independence, its causes and beginnings, its relation to the sea power of England, and its importance as one of the great events in history. Grafted on to the chronological sequence just cited there appears in the second quarter a side topic—"A Study of the War for World-Democracy, 1914-18." To the outsider this seems to be in mild sense apologetic for the predominating ancient and mediaeval history still appearing in the seventh grade of a progressive school. It is only fair to say that apparently every effort is made to select only those historical topics which form a background for the dominating ideas in American life today.

Social science in the eighth grade proceeds purely upon the topical basis in American history as a story and interpretation of our democracy, quite openly discarding chronological sequence. The first quarter begins by comparing the war powers of the United States Government of 1918 with those of The Continental Congress, and ends by considering progress made so far by the 1919 Peace Conference dealing with the freedom of the seas. Second quarter contrasts industrial conditions of today with those of 1819, traces the development of domestic and foreign trade, and treats of the westward expansion of the United States as affecting democracy. Third quarter discusses the geographic, industrial, and social differences which led to the Civil War, the problems involved in preserving the Union, and the problems of reconstruction. Comparison is made with world reconstruction in 1919. Fourth quarter presents these topics: territorial expansion; transportation and communication; taxation, including tariff and internal revenue; the Monroe Doctrine and its present application; trade relations with Latin America; labor questions; League of Nations; prohibition; growth of cities; and the like.

The ninth grade organizes its community civics in the first half-year on the basis of Dunn's *Community Life*, and its second

half-year course in the vocations on the background of Gowan and Wheatly's *Occupations*. Neither of these texts is considered by consecutive chapters; various chapters are taken at the most opportune seasons. They are supplemented by fairly wide independent reading and investigations, especially in the consideration of vocations for girls in which the primary text is deficient. Effort is made to keep classes acquainted with new books, with trade papers and magazines, and government bulletins dealing with vocations. All materials thus accumulated make their way by individual reports into the socialized recitations. Last year the classes supplemented their reading with group visits to the following establishments: Rice-Stix Dry Goods Company, Hamilton Brown Shoe Company, National Candy Company, National Biscuit Company, Loose-Wiles Biscuit Company, Busy Bee Confectionery Company, and Funsten Fur Company. Parents and friends, and sometimes business men from St. Louis, supplement the work with letters and talks. One outgrowth in 1919 was the formation of the Young Men's Business Club of Blewett Junior High.

EDUCATIONAL PROJECTS AND VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Primary, then, in the Junior High field of educational guidance for citizenship and vocational life are the unbroken series of subject-matter studies in social science content and a continuous effort to direct wise choice on the basis of sound information. Direct educational guidance is in the nature of pre-educational try-outs in the seventh and eighth grades, and prevocational education for non-academic, (y) and (z), pupils in the ninth grades.

GENERAL SCHEDULE OF ADVISORY WORK¹

Seventh grade:

1. Advisory work—5 times a week.
 - a) Reports of occupation of parent or guardian and of preparation necessary to follow that occupation.
 - b) Reports of curriculum elected by brother or sister in Senior High School giving reason for this selection, previous preparation, etc.
 - c) A study of courses and electives open to pupils at Blewett High School.
 - d) Visits to try-out rooms to familiarize pupils with work in order to enable them to elect wisely.
 - e) Educational enthusiasm aroused to fire pupils with ambition to continue their education.

¹ Cox, *op. cit.*, pp. 350-51.

Eighth grade:

1. Advisory work.
 - a) Five-minute period morning and evening devoted to routine matters, announcements, etc.
 - b) For C groups one period per week set aside to be used in teaching pupils how to study, giving special help to the weak and toward preventing failures.
 - c) One period in three weeks given for advisory work to study problems in citizenship.
2. Electives—daily period for try-out work.
 - a) Pupils are advised to elect what interests them.
 - b) Pupils may change elective after a try-out.
 - c) Pupils may change elective when entering ninth year.

Ninth grade:

1. Advisory work—1 period in 2 weeks.
2. Electives—vocational try-outs.
 - a) Non-academic pupils electing practical arts take course in auto mechanics, printing, or cabinet-making.
 - b) Non-academic pupils electing household arts take course in dressmaking or cooking, including in this the actual purchasing of materials, dish-washing, serving, etc.
 - c) Non-academic pupils electing commerce (s) are trained to become expert copyists. [These are pupils of the C type who spend the full three years at Blewett and the A's and B's who elect the technical courses.]
3. Course in vocations.
 - a) To give vocational information.
 - b) To study occupations followed in St. Louis.

PART OF A CHART SHOWING STUDY OF C GROUP BY CLASS ADVISER

Name	Age	Health	General Characteristics
Girl A ...	11½	Nervous; lacks muscular control.	Average mental ability; lacking in self-control; no leadership; timid; sensitive; imaginative.
Boy B ...	12	Very healthy.	Much change of schools, public to private and vice versa. Forward; domineering; works irregularly because of lack of concentration.
Boy C ...	13½	Teeth loosened by blow in mouth; not attended to for several years. Still trouble him.	Came from —, Illinois; frequent change of schools; tells of frequent truancy; has initiative and dependability; talks well; absolutely lacking in rudiments of written language; lovable, and shows self-control.
Girl D ...	11¾	Had serious case of typhoid two years ago. Severe illness two months ago. Unable to retain even water. Fairly wearied. Needs varied work.	From good home; naturally a slow thinker; parents do most of thinking for her; quite babyish; little self-control.

When the pupils enter the school in the seventh grade, first quarter, the most deficient C group is placed in the hands of one of the strong teachers who immediately begins to make a detailed personal analysis of each pupil. She tabulates for record as exemplified on page 38. After a few weeks of this investigation the pupils are distributed among the other C groups, placed in the charge of teachers best fitted to deal with their needs, and in groups best suited for their association.

NINTH-GRADE ADVISORY SCHEDULE

Advisory periods in the ninth grade are held on the odd weeks on Wednesday.
Citizenship:

- I. Good leadership
 - 1-2 Class
 - 2-2 School
 - 3-2 Community (outside of school)
- II. Obligations of citizenship
 - 1-2 Maintenance of good character
 - 1-3 Personal character—habits { formation of good habits
 - 2-3 School character { breaking of bad habits
 - 2-2 Efforts to maintain health
 - 1-3 Personal health
 - 2-3 Community health
 - 1-4 Under ordinary conditions
 - 2-4 In time of plagues
 - 1-5 Inspection of ponds and sewers
 - 2-5 Care of foods in home and shops
 - 3-5 Destruction of insect pests
 - 3-2 Proper spirit toward school authorities
 - 4-2 Proper spirit toward school organizations
 - 1-3 Membership
 - 2-3 Leadership
 - 5-2 Respect for school property
 - 1-3 House
 - 2-3 Furniture
 - 3-3 Decorative features
 - 6-2 Interest in school neighborhood
 - 1-3 Care of school grounds
 - 2-3 Shade trees
 - 3-3 Hedges
 - 7-2 Attitude toward neighborhood tradesmen
 - 8-2 Attitude toward policemen stationed for school duty
 - 9-2 Neighborliness

III. Helpful human service

1-2 Reverence for home

1-3 Respect for parents

2-3 Attitude toward other members of family

3-3 Understanding of family budget

1-4 Rent or taxes

2-4 Food

3-4 Clothes

4-4 Personal earnings

5-4 Amusements

6-4 Personal savings

7-4 Thrift

2-2 Service to school

1-3 Team work

2-3 In corridors

3-3 In auditorium

4-3 In lunchroom

5-3 On school grounds—flag raising; outdoor games

3-2 Service to community

1-3 Red Cross work

2-3 Thrift Stamp campaigns

3-3 Liberty Loan campaigns

4-3 Non-partisan movement—raising taxes for school purposes.

4-2 Neighborhood interests

1-3 Shade trees

2-3 Beautiful grounds

3-3 Care of vacant lots

The way in which other studies are made to fit in with social science as the core of the curriculum will appear in the second part of this article.

[To be concluded]

A FAILURE CLASS IN ALGEBRA

O. A. WOOD

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In the autumn of 1917, the writer, a teacher of mathematics in Central High School of Kansas City, Missouri, was assigned a class in first-year algebra, composed of Sophomores, Juniors, and Seniors. These pupils had failed in algebra from one to three times before September, 1917. Such classes are not exceptional in large city high schools where algebra is required of all first-year pupils. In organizing their schools, principals must plan to take care of these pupils. Provisions for such classes require from one-fifth to three-fifths of one teacher's time. The waste of school funds in the maintenance of these classes is evident. Since these pupils are more difficult to teach than ordinary pupils, the vital strain on the teacher is evident. The economic waste in this situation deserves the special consideration of the school officials and the public. The waste of time of from thirty to ninety pupils for fifty minutes a day for ten school months a year is probably a more serious economic loss than that sustained in money and teacher energy combined.

Impressed by the seriousness of these losses, the writer, after consultation with Principal H. H. Holmes, determined, on the advice of Dr. W. W. Charters, to give the Binet-Simon tests for general intelligence, and the Rugg and Clark tests to disclose their specific trouble in algebra. Furthermore, by the advice of Principal Holmes, he gave the test for general intelligence to those pupils only who volunteered to take it. Inasmuch as the Rugg and Clark tests provide for measuring ability in the mechanics of the subject only, the writer decided to give three additional tests in reasoning. Accordingly, a set of tests, based upon the interpretation problems of the text (Hawkes-Luby-Touton's *First Course in Algebra*) were given as a gauge of the reasoning power of the pupils—a test of the pupil's ability to translate English into algebraic symbols.

After an explanation of the purposes of the intelligence tests, twenty-three out of a class of thirty-four volunteered to take it. Some pupils whose general appearance indicated a low degree of

intelligence failed to volunteer. The Binet-Simon tests were administered as directed by Terman in his Stanford Revision, published by Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916. The Rugg and Clark tests were given as controlled tests and were made a portion of the regular daily recitations. The pupils were supplied with score cards and were enabled to compare their work with the standards that had been established by Rugg and Clark in their experiments. The reasoning tests were given in the same manner as the Rugg and Clark tests.

Furthermore, it was determined to get as much of the pupil's past history as possible. To attain this the questionnaire on the following page was submitted to each pupil. The questionnaire was answered in the homes of the majority.

On the whole the pupils answered all the questions with the exception of those that probably seemed to them too personal. If their parents were either high-school or college graduates, the children answered readily. We are compelled to assume in the cases where the parents were not high-school or college graduates that the pupils or parents considered the question too personal and did not answer. Questions as to the education of the entire family fared in the same manner, likewise the questions as to the home library and the magazines in the home. If the home was owned or a rental of \$25 a month was paid, pupils answered. We must assume in the other cases that the home was not owned or that the rental paid was less than \$25 a month. General appearance of the pupils as to dress, refinement of actions, and personal inquiry lead us to believe that each of the above assumptions is correct.

From the data at hand we find that 42.61 per cent of the class were girls and 57.39 per cent boys. The home environment for all was medium in all but five cases. The home surroundings of four of these could be classed as good and those of the fifth were distinctly bad.

All of the twenty-three pupils were American born. Eighteen of the twenty-three had both parents American born. Four had both parents foreign born and one had a foreign-born father. Just to what extent the ideals of the foreign-born parents conflicted with American ideals and to what extent the difference of ideas affected school progress is extremely hard to determine, because the conduct

of these children was good. It is possible, but hardly probable, that the ideals may have affected the home-study programs of the pupils.

The affect of a foreign language in the home probably affected the school progress in the primary grades, but it is certain that the

QUESTIONNAIRE

ANSWER EACH QUESTION, IF AGREEABLE

Name.....Address.....
Nationality.....Name of father.....
Nationality of father.....Name of mother.....
Nationality of mother.....Language of father.....
Language of mother.....Language of home.....
Education of father.....Education of mother.....
Occupation of father.....Occupation of mother.....
Number of books in the home.....Number of magazines in the home.....
What books do you read?.....
What magazines do you read?.....
Do your parents own their home?.....How much rent do you pay?.....
Age of walking.....Age of talking.....
How often have you been seriously ill?.....When?.....
Did you fully recover?.....Are you in good health today?.....
Number years attended ward school.....Number years attended high school.....
Number grades repeated.....Number grades skipped.....
Number subjects repeated.....What subjects repeated?.....
Number years you have studied algebra.....Will you study geometry?.....
Will you study algebra 3?.....Will you study geometry 3?.....
Reason for your response.....
What high-school subjects do you prefer?.....
Why?.....
How many in your family?.....How many under 14 years old?.....
How many over 14 years old?.....Do you work after school?.....
How many of your brothers and sisters graduated from ward school?.....
How many of your brothers and sisters attended high school 1 year?.....
How many of your brothers and sisters attended high school 2 years?.....
How many of your brothers and sisters attended high school 3 years?.....
How many of your brothers and sisters attended high school 4 years?.....
How many of your brothers and sisters attended college $\frac{1}{2}$ year?.....
How many of your brothers and sisters attended college 1 year?.....
How many of your brothers and sisters attended college 2 years?.....
How many of your brothers and sisters attended college 3 years?.....
How many of your brothers and sisters attended college 4 years?.....
How many of your brothers and sisters stopped school at any time before they graduated from the school attended?.....In what year did they stop?.....Was it ward school, high school, or college?.....
Has mathematics always been difficult for the members of your family?.....
Did they tell you it was a difficult subject?.....
Do they consider it a loss of time to study algebra?.....

DATA OBTAINED FROM QUESTIONNAIRES, CLASS GRADES, AND INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W
Pupil.....	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W
Sex.....	M	F	F	F	M	M	M	M	F	F	M	M	F	F	M	M	F	M	M	M	M	F	M
Home environment	M	G	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	P	M	G	G	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
Nationality of parents.....	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
Nationality of pupil.....	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
Good health.....	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Defects in sight.....	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Defects in hearing.....	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Adenoids.....	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Bad tonsils.....	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Years in high school	4	2	2	3	4	2	3	2	3	2	4	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2
Grades repeated.....	1	1	0	0	2	1	0	3	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	2
Grades skipped.....	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Language of home.....	E	E	E	E	I	Y	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	V	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E
Chronological age.....	18-9	15	15-6	15-8	17-8	19-6	16-4	16-2	15-4	18-3	15-6	17-2	15-8	18-3	16	15-3	15	15-11	16	16-9	18-3	17-8	18-4
Mental age.....	18	16-1	16-2	16-4	16-1	15-11	15-11	14-10	15-2	14-5	14-11	14-8	14-10	14-9	14-1	14-4	14-1	14-1	14-2	13-6	13-2	12-2	
Intelligence quotients.....	112	107	104	103	102	100	100	99	97	94	93	93	93	92	91	90	89	88	88	84	82	70	
Class grades.....	65	75	75	65	65	75	65	65	85	63	55	55	65	75	65	65	65	65	65	55	55	55	

A indicates American; H, Hebrew; I, Italian; Y, Yiddish; M, medium; G, good; E, English; P, poor; M, also indicates male; F, female

pupils had overcome any language difficulties by this time. The use of the foreign language in the home could not in any manner have affected the general intelligence.

The conditions of the health of the pupils as set forth by responses to the questionnaire show that 13.04 per cent were not in good health at the time they were members of the class. Student M has suffered with spinal curvature from infancy and is compelled to wear a brace. Student R, in bad health, attended school very irregularly. However she said in the questionnaire that her health was good. Student U has lost one eye and suffers much with the other. Student V has suffered with eye defects and adenoids. Student W is in good health, but is clearly subnormal. W's mother visited the teacher and requested that W's intelligence be tested. She said, "I know that W is not like other children. I would take him from school if he were willing to quit. I am sending him hoping that he will get enough from his training to make him a good man and not a charge on the public."

Responses to the questionnaire show that with the exception of W none has failed in other high-school subjects. It would be interesting to compare the class grades in other subjects with their intelligence quotients and their grades in algebra.

Responses to the questionnaire show that each pupil taking the Binet-Simon test has failed once in algebra; that 60.88 per cent have failed once, 26.08 per cent have failed twice, and 13.94 per cent have failed three times prior to the school year of 1917-18. Responses further show that 52.08 per cent of the class have repeated grades during their ward school career; that 17.39 per cent have skipped grades, and that 30.53 per cent have gone through the ward school in a normal manner. It should be noted that one pupil who skipped one grade later repeated one grade; that two skipped one-half grade each, and another skipped a full grade, and that all three of these pupils completed their ward school course without demotion.

The teacher-marks in algebra for the year of 1917-18 were uniform, but higher than would have been given to an ordinary class upon the theory that it is better to hold pupils in school, to permit them to obtain social ideals from other subjects and make better citizens rather than to drive them from school by giving them failure-marks in algebra. A very large number were marked P meaning Poor as well as Pass.

A graphical comparison of the intelligence quotients of the boys and the girls of this class shows that the girls excelled the boys in general intelligence. (Intelligence quotient = mental age \div chronological age.) Comparison of the class grades of the boys and the girls shows that the girls again excelled the boys.

The writer computed the correlation coefficients between the intelligence quotients and the class grades by four different methods: graphic, Spearman's Foot rule, Spearman's "Rho" rule, and Pearson's formula. Pearson's formula is the most accurate. In some few cases, Spearman's Foot rule was used to the exclusion of other methods in order to save time. In such cases the method of calculation is indicated.

The traits, intelligence quotients, and class grades were compared. The coefficient of correlation obtained by the graphic method was +.7225; by Spearman's Foot rule +.993; by Spearman's "Rho" rule +.6775; by Pearson's formula +.710. Each result from the above computations being positive, we conclude that there is a positive relation between the general intelligence of this class and the class grades assigned. That is, there is a positive relation between the algebraic ability of this class and their general intelligence. The median class grade was 68.8 per cent, 1.2 per cent below the ordinary passing grade of 70 per cent. The median intelligence quotient was 94.5, which is 4.5 higher than the lower limit of normal intelligence of any group of unselected individuals; it is also 5.5 below the lower limit of normal intelligence of high-school pupils, 15.5 below the upper limit of normal intelligence of any group of unselected individuals, and 25.5 below the upper limit of normal intelligence of high-school pupils.

It was further determined to compare the class grades and the intelligence quotients by computing the deviations from an arbitrary passing grade of 60 per cent and an arbitrary intelligence quotient of 90, the lower limit of normal intelligence of any group of unselected individuals. The result, a correlation coefficient of +.70 (Pearson's formula) signifies a positive relation between the class grades assigned and the general intelligence of this class when the deviations are computed from these arbitrary lower limits.

A similar comparison to that described above, with the exception that 100 was used for the arbitrary limit for intelligence quotients, from which deviations of the intelligence quotients were

computed, resulted in a correlation coefficient of +.71 (Pearson's formula), signifying a positive relation between the class grades and the general intelligence of the class.

A comparison of the intelligence quotients and the marks made in the Rugg and Clark Test No. 1 resulted in a correlation coefficient of +.882 (Spearman's Foot rule). This test consists of collecting of monomials. The class standard was 9.15 right in three minutes while the Rugg and Clark standard was 12 right in three minutes. This class had gone over the principles involved from two to four times, the number of times varying with the individual students, prior to taking this test.

A comparison of the arithmetic means of all the marks made in the sixteen Rugg and Clark tests and the intelligence quotients resulted in a correlation coefficient of +.998 (Spearman's Foot rule).

A comparison of the arithmetic means of the reasoning tests and the intelligence quotients resulted in a correlation coefficient of +.753 (Spearman's Foot rule).

A comparison of the teacher-marks and the arithmetic means of the Rugg and Clark tests resulted in a correlation coefficient of .999 (Spearman's Foot rule). The class grades were not based upon results of the tests. If the Rugg and Clark tests are trustworthy, then the teacher-marks are absolutely reliable as a gauge of the algebraic ability of this class.

A comparison of the arithmetic means of the reasoning tests and the arithmetic means of the sixteen Rugg and Clark tests resulted in a correlation coefficient of +.979 (Spearman's Foot rule). The conclusion is, if the Rugg and Clark tests are a true measure of the mechanical ability of the class in algebra, then, the reasoning tests are perfectly reliable as a measure of the reasoning powers of the class in interpretation problems.

It was further determined to test the reliability of the correlation coefficient, +.71 (computed by Pearson's formula), by applying the formula accepted by Rugg and by Thorndike as a necessary and sufficient test of the trustworthiness of such computations. Applying the formula and interpolating and using the tables on page 404 of Rugg's *Statistical Methods in Education*, we obtain a probable error of .0717. This indicates that the calculation of this correlation coefficient +.71 is reliable to seven hundred seven ten thousandths of a unit.

The writer accepts the Rugg and Clark tests as the best method of testing the pupils in the mechanical processes of first-year algebra that he has seen. They have been worked out scientifically, and are reported in a monograph entitled, "Scientific Method in the Reconstruction of Ninth-Grade Mathematics," published by the University of Chicago. He furthermore accepts the Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon tests for intelligence as the best test for intelligence at the time this study was made.

The correlation coefficient produced by comparing the class grades and the intelligence quotients shows that this class was subnormal in algebraic ability.

The correlation coefficient produced by comparing the arithmetic means of the sixteen Rugg and Clark tests and the intelligence quotients shows that this class was distinctly subnormal in algebraic ability.

The writer, despite the class records in other subjects, when he views the results of the several tests and the correlation coefficients resulting from comparing the data obtained from these tests, believes that this class as a whole is subnormal in general intelligence.

This study further shows that there is a fundamental relation existing between failures and repetition in algebra, and a low grade of intelligence as shown between the high correlations between these two traits.

We conclude that these classes are maintained at a waste of public-school funds. For this reason they should be eliminated. These classes are maintained at a great cost of teacher-vital-energy and for that reason should be eliminated; these classes are maintained at a great loss of the pupils' time and should be eliminated to save economic waste. Since there is a close relation between general intelligence and ability to learn algebra, it seems reasonable to conclude that the general intelligence of each pupil should be determined before he is required to take the subject. If he is clearly below normal in general intelligence, he should be prohibited from taking algebra unless there should be good reasons to the contrary. Since the United States government accepted psychological tests as a basis for the classification of men in the army and the indications are that the classification on this basis was a success, it seems probable that the schools will eventually try

to determine the general intelligence of the pupils and make the results obtained the basis of classification in all subjects.

ARITHMETIC MEANS OF THE DATA OBTAINED FROM THE
RUGG AND CLARK TESTS AND THE REASONING TESTS

Pupil	Rugg and Clark	Reasoning	Pupil	Rugg and Clark	Reasoning
A.....	11.5	5.6	M.....	8.2	3.8
B.....	11.6	6.1	N.....	9.1	4.2
C.....	9.5	3.5	O.....	8.8	5.3
D.....	10.0	5.2	P.....	9.3	5.1
E.....	11.2	5.6	Q.....	8.8	4.0
F.....	8.6	4.0	R.....	8.0	2.4
G.....	7.4	4.4	S.....	8.9	3.6
H.....	9.5	3.6	T.....	3.6	1.3
I.....	9.9	3.8	U.....	3.5	2.5
J.....	10.8	5.2	V.....	5.7	2.1
K.....	8.8	4.1	W.....	6.2	3.0
L.....	6.4	2.5			

THE SOCIAL LIFE OF HIGH-SCHOOL GIRLS: ITS PROBLEMS AND ITS OPPORTUNITIES

OLIVIA POUND

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Until quite recently education was regarded, not as a bit of life itself, but rather as a preparation for life. According to the old conception of the aim of education there seemed to be no need for supervising the social activities of high-school pupils. The majority of school authorities avoided, so far as possible, responsibility for the pupils' social life. It was considered a problem of the home, and concerned the school only when social activities interfered with school work. In some schools social organizations were actually forbidden; in others they were regarded as a necessary evil, tolerated merely in order to keep the pupils pacified. Consequent upon the changing views of education, a feeling has arisen among educators that the social life of the school is as important as the intellectual life, for in the social situations of the school the pupils are living in embryo many of the experiences they will have through life. Education is now regarded, not as training for future living, but as training for present living. Consequently the problem faces us of how best to utilize and develop whatever of good there has been in the multifarious clubs springing up in high schools, and of how to curb such anti-social tendencies in them as have heretofore gone unchecked. The present paper will discuss only the problems and opportunities of the social life of high-school girls.

Doubtless the problem of socializing the high-school girl seems more difficult than that of socializing the high-school boy because tradition has tended to make girls individualistic. Moreover, girls are rather timid; their lack of confidence makes them seem backward; so it is necessary for the school authorities to make an opportunity for girls to take part in the social life of the school. The school must see to it that all the girls as well as the boys are able to work efficiently through organization.

Among the first problems that high-school teachers encounter in working out a social program is the problem of the exclusive

clubs which have been traditional in most high schools. These organizations usually have a woman teacher as sponsor; their meetings are held, for the most part, in the school building; the time and frequency of meetings are as a rule regulated, and often some attempt has been made to curb not only the girls' "rushing" and lavish entertaining but also their snobbish airs. In spite of these attempts, however, clubs, which usually started as literary organizations, have become purely social and have degenerated into "near" or full-fledged "sororities," having all the faults and none of the virtues of the college fraternity. It is a very difficult matter to reconstruct these clubs so that they will contribute to the welfare of the school.

In the school with which I am most familiar there were, until recently, five such exclusive clubs which gradually became a positive harm to the school. Their activities led nowhere and caused constant friction. Many girls dropped out of school because they had been unable to "make" the clubs considered most desirable. Friendships of a lifetime were frequently severed, and girls of sterling worth who did not seem quite socially available were rudely snubbed. After a constructive social program had been launched, these clubs were finally discontinued by action of the faculty because it was found that the launching of new organizations was blocked so long as the old, exclusive clubs remained. Girls still wanted to get into what seemed to be "the thing." It is significant that when these exclusive clubs were discontinued, the presidents said they were glad that the organizations were dead. They had been a real burden to keep going, and had prevented the girls from doing work that was worth while. The majority of the former members of these exclusive groups are now entering whole-heartedly into the democratic organizations of the school.

After the problem of winning over the exclusive girls of the school has been met, the next difficulty to be encountered is that of drawing into the social activities of the school the diffident, unattractive, and indifferent girls. These cases all have to be handled with the greatest tact, for if a girl suspects that she is considered a "problem," it is hopeless to help her. There are usually three ways of bringing such a girl out of herself. All of the girl's teachers can conspire to give her every opportunity in the classroom to take her share of responsibility in socializing the recita-

tion. When she is once aroused there, it is possible to interest her in the more general activities of the school. Another way is to interest in her case some older, attractive, and thoroughly dependable girl. Such girls can often do wonders in bringing out the most unpromising material. The best method, however, of helping girls to gain self-respect and the confidence of others is to give them some small responsibility and help them to make good. Once a girl has set herself a standard she will not fail.

The indifferent girl is usually sublimely unconscious that she has any social responsibilities. Often a girl is socially indifferent because she is of the intellectual type; books are more interesting than people to her mind. Or a girl may be indifferent because she is absorbed in social activities outside of the school, or is "offish" because she thinks everyone "has it in" for her, or because of shyness or poverty. Whatever the cause, she should, and usually, can, be reached through some activity of the school.

A more difficult problem to meet in the social life of the school is that of racial differences. Democratic as we are, there are still prevalent prejudices against either the religious beliefs or against the color of certain elements in our population. It is of the utmost importance that school authorities build up a broad spirit of toleration. Teachers who cannot put aside strong prejudices have no place in a democratic high school. That such problems can be handled justly has been proved in many schools.

The problem of a small group of colored girls in a school is difficult; but they, too, must be treated fairly. If possible, they should be encouraged to form an organization of their own. So far as possible, they should be allowed to participate in the large organizations of the school.

Lastly, there is the problem of social standards. This involves the whole question of social usage, chaperonage, dancing, and the like. This question depends largely on the social standards of the community. What the school can do is to create a wholesome atmosphere with the pupils so interested in purposeful activities that they will be considerate, clean-minded, and sensible. It has been said that the independence of American children tends to make them rude and inconsiderate. If this is true, the school must do what it can to inculcate in the pupils simple, straightforward, considerate manners.

Before it is possible to judge which social activities of a school should be fostered and which suppressed, some definite criteria should be determined upon, by which the value of such organizations may be measured. In general, it is safe to say that social activities that do not "carry on," that do not in some way promote growth, are unworthy of the time and attention of any school. Judged by this standard there are some organizations making more for socialization than others, but any pupil organization ought in some way to contribute to the recognized aims of secondary education if it is to be tolerated by the school.

Aside from the usual class organizations, the most democratic groups in our high schools are those that to some degree participate in the government of the school. They are also valuable because they give the pupils some actual training in citizenship. In these co-operative organizations the officers are chosen from class or session room groups so that it is almost impossible for cliques to control them. There is usually an equal number of girls and boys on the council of these co-operative bodies so that the girls meet on an equal footing with the boys. They assume equal responsibilities with the boys and contribute to the same degree in solving such school problems as are within their jurisdiction. The girls have always proved, so far as my experience goes, equal to the responsibilities placed upon them. If anything, they are more serious than the boys, and realize more fully the importance of their work.

Among the activities carried on by the student council of the Lincoln High School, Lincoln, Nebraska, during the past year are the organizing of matinee parties on alternating Fridays, the preparation of an all-school carnival which netted \$875.09, and the collecting of the records of all the former high-school students who served in the recent war. The council has also been responsible for the order in the cafeteria. Toward the close of the second semester last year the council assisted the principal in familiarizing with the building all pupils of the eighth grades who were to enter the high school this fall. At the time when the proposed organization of the league of nations was first made public, the council organized discussions of the topic in the home rooms, had a prominent speaker discuss the subject in the general school assembly, and finally had a vote of the school taken on the question. The result of the vote, endorsing the proposed league, was sent to Presi-

dent Wilson. The council also wrote to the pupils of other schools of the state urging them to carry on a similar campaign of education on the subject. In all of these activities the girls of the council did as valuable work as the boys.

Along with these general organizations of the whole student body there have grown up in many schools clubs composed entirely of girls. Sometimes these clubs take the form of a girls' athletic association as in the Richmond High School, Richmond, Indiana. Sometimes they are designed to bring about proper dress and to correct the manners of too boisterous girls, as the Merrill Club of West Division High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin. More often, however, the all-girls' organizations undertake many activities. Through these it is possible to draw every girl into the social life of the school.

The Washington Irving High School, New York City, in addition to the numerous activities carried on heretofore, contributed during the year 1917-18 a remarkable amount of war work. They made knitted garments, hospital supplies, surgical dressings, and between September, 1917 and February, 1918 raised \$1,567.63. This money was spent chiefly in purchasing the material for the contributions mentioned above.

The Girls Club of the Franklin High School, Seattle, Washington, has a wide variety of activities and interests. The officers of the club work through the school roll, record the name and capacity of each girl in school, and try to interest her in the line of work for which she is best fitted. The members of the club encourage and manage all girls' athletics. They take charge of lost and found articles, care for all girls who are ill, and keep flowers in all the rooms of the school. At Christmas and Thanksgiving the girls decorate the building and collect and distribute clothing and food among the needy of the city. The girls arrange programs for their club functions and repeat them at charitable institutions. Some of the girls keep in touch with all former Franklin High School boys in the service. They also write notes to all girls who have been absent from school two days, send flowers to girls who are sick, and keep track of all girls who leave school during the term.

The Girls' League of the Manual Arts High School, Los Angeles, California, has two main purposes: to encourage the spirit of helpfulness and friendship, and to stimulate scholarship. The

girls are divided into groups of about two hundred each. These are worked out so that there are girls of all grades in each group. Each section has a cabinet member and secretary. The girls' vice-president of the Student Body—the all-school organization—is president of the Girls' League. The section secretaries and cabinet members are her helpers. The girls hold assemblies of their own, maintain a system of "sponsors and sponsorettes," give parties for all the girls of the school, to which mothers are often invited. They try to keep track of the girls that leave school during the year.

In the Lincoln High School, Lincoln, Nebraska, the All Girls League, to which every girl of the school belongs, has a council of twelve members chosen at large by the girl members of the student council and presided over by the highest girl official of the student council. During the war the league organized Red Cross classes which turned out quantities of surgical dressings and even continued their organization during the summer. Last year they held two mass meetings at which problems of special interest to girls were discussed. In the spring they assisted the student standard club of the Y. W. C. A. in presenting a "style show" before all the girls of the school. They also were instrumental in starting a girls' athletic association which held contests in minor sports, swimming, baseball, basket-ball, tennis, and track athletics. The league has also organized a "big sister" movement to assist in welcoming the incoming girls each semester.

In addition to these organizations that are open to all the girls of the school, there should be all sorts of clubs open to girls on a tryout basis. These should include dramatic, debating or public-speaking clubs, musical, art, household arts, athletic, English, scientific, and business efficiency clubs. It is true that our pupils have been "clubbed" to death, but it is also true that they have not been "clubbed" in the right way. Too often, heretofore, the membership of all clubs was chosen for social availability.

Within the past year the need for constant athletic training for girls has been apparent. Girls are being asked to take up all manner of work hitherto done by men, but little provision has been made to keep them physically fit so that they will be equal to their tasks. It is possible so to organize the girls' athletic work in the high school that it will have a socializing influence on the girls. It has long

been felt that boys learned group loyalty and fair play through the team-work demanded in certain games. There is no reason why girls should not have the same advantage if a plan of athletics is worked out suitable to their needs.

These social organizations of the high school not only serve to satisfy the girls' social instincts, but can give them interests that will help them to spend their leisure hours wisely. Often it is through these organizations that the girls gain whatever appreciation they have of music, drama, and art. Through them also they may acquire the right social standards.

A HIGH-SCHOOL PROGRAM FOR TRAINING IN CITIZENSHIP¹

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The outstanding fact which the war has brought home to the schools is the urgent necessity of making adequate provision for training in citizenship. This proposition is offered without argument because it seems generally to be conceded. In fact, superintendents of schools and boards of education have passed beyond the point where they need to be convinced that citizenship training is essential and are now asking for a concrete program by which their aims may be realized.

If we are to train boys and girls for good citizenship, we must know the qualities of the good citizen so that we may recognize one when we see him. On the negative side we should all agree that the good citizen is not an idler, he is not a disturber of the peace, is not so much concerned with his own affairs that he has no interest in the welfare of his community, and that he is not one who is continually demanding his rights and continually ignoring his duties. The good citizen is the ideal member of the community. In all the relations of life he conducts himself in a manner that is above reproach. He does his own thinking on public matters and helps to lead the thinking of others into right channels. He votes intelligently for candidates for public office and is not unwilling himself to assume the duties of office upon occasion. The good citizen is willing and able to support himself and all who are dependent upon him; he obeys the laws himself and assists in the general maintenance of law and order; and, finally, according to his ability, he makes a positive contribution to the general welfare so that the world is at least a little better for what he has been or for what he has done.

¹ An address delivered at the Conference of Wisconsin City Superintendents at Madison, October 2, 1919.

It is not given to all nor is it required of all to serve their generation in the conspicuous manner which has given the world its heroes and its heroines. Most of us have more humble though no less essential tasks assigned to us. In performing these tasks faithfully and well according to the measure of our ability we fulfil our duties as citizens. In preparing boys and girls for this unromantic but necessary service lies the chief work of the schools. It is begun in the kindergarten, continued in the primary and grammar grades, and more fully developed in the high school.

If the high schools of the nation are to do their part in the great work which is to be done, first of all they must attract and hold much larger numbers of pupils. An eminent educator has pointed out recently that we are a nation of sixth-graders. With this miserably inadequate supply of trained intelligence we are called upon to settle by popular vote the great issues of the day—issues that involve the welfare, not only of this generation of Americans, but also of generations yet unborn. When stated in this bald fashion the problem seems fraught with almost insuperable difficulties. And yet there is no good reason for despair. Fortunately we have other agencies for education in addition to the schools. The newspaper and the magazine, the clergyman, the public speaker, the social and the political club, the theater, the daily social contacts of men with men—all these contribute in large measure to the development of that kind of public opinion upon which alone we can depend for the final justification of our American form of government. After giving all due credit, however, to pulpit, press, platform, and other social agencies for their contributions to general education, we cannot but realize that they are inadequate to train for service to the state. Most, if not all, of these agencies have special interests to engage their principal attention. At their best these special interests are constructive forces; at their worst they undermine the very foundations upon which the nation is built. For its safety, therefore, the nation must depend more and more upon the public school, especially upon the public high school, for these institutions are concerned with the welfare of the whole body of the nation. For this reason the high school must bring ever-increasing numbers of boys and girls within its influence, and it must manage to keep these boys and girls until it has delivered its message in full to every one of them.

Though the pupils who have gone through the high schools in the years that are behind us have had much excellent training in citizenship, the results which we achieved have been rather a by-product of the educational process. In this respect the doctrine of formal discipline seems to find some justification, for the training which the schools have given in habits of punctuality, self-control, diligence, self-reliance, truthfulness, and the other virtues, appears to have been carried over to some extent into the later civic life of the students. That it has not always been carried over, however, is a matter of common knowledge. If all of our high-school pupils of even the last thirty years had really learned the habit of good citizenship in school, we now should have a different record of achievement in public affairs.

It is apparent, therefore, that the by-products of high-school education are not sufficiently diffused nor are they sufficiently assured to form a safe foundation for the establishment of the civic virtues. The whole high school must take on the character of a great civic enterprise. We shall continue to teach English, history, mathematics, manual training, and the other subjects but we shall teach them all with new objectives. Today we are training individuals, each one of whom is striving for success according to the standards of a social order which has rich rewards for the self-seeking. Tomorrow, under the new conception of our duty, we shall inculcate the doctrine that individual attainments are to be valued chiefly for the service they render to the state.

It is not, to be sure, a Roman or a Prussian state that we want here in America. We do not want a state which completely submerges the individual and which knows no law but its own might. Both the Christian religion and our political traditions teach us that the individual has ultimate worth for his own sake. Without recognition of this ultimate worth, no enduring state can be built. On the other hand the individual increases his own value when he serves a state which seeks to assure the well-being of the individual. Here in America, then, there is an ethical relationship between the individual and the state—a relationship in which each seeks the good of the other. To strengthen this ethical relationship and to purify it so that it cannot be other than good for all the people of the earth should be the aim of all who would not be false to themselves and to their country. Because in America we are trying to

build an ethical state founded upon the morality of its citizens, it is inconsistent with our purpose that in the schools the boys and girls should be permitted to think that they are working for their own interests only. Social serviceability founded upon the highest possible perfection of the individual should be our aim. Too often even well-intentioned schoolmasters permit their pupils to think that a high-school education should be regarded as a means of having an easier time in life than their less fortunate fellows. The fostering of such a purpose is anti-social. It is un-American. Only by exalting the ideal of service can we help to build an ideal America. Only as increasing numbers of our people adopt this idea of service as their own can we hope to have a happy issue out of all the troubles which so thickly beset us.

It is easy to see, then, that ethics must occupy a first place in the teaching of citizenship—not theoretical or textbook ethics merely, but that branch of ethics which concerns itself with the everyday practical life. We have emerged from the war with great power and great wealth. The imagination of our people has been stirred by the records of achievement in the realm of material things. Not yet have we had time to appraise the value of the contributions which the human spirit has made to the winning of the war. When the full story is finally told, it will be more thrilling than we now can conceive. But for the present the material is uppermost in our minds. We are in danger of setting up wrong standards of value. It is essential for national safety that we see things in the right perspective and that at all costs we keep alive the spirit which has made America great—the love of liberty, of justice, of honor, of opportunity, of fair-dealing with all the world. We need now more than ever the teaching of practical ethics in the schools. In its usual sense ethics is the science of right conduct. We are asking for a science of conduct transmitted into the art of moral living through specific training in the high school.

Under the plan herein proposed for training in citizenship every subject of study would become a social science. English, for example, when pursued exclusively for its own sake, leads to dilettantism and produces only a thin veneer of useless culture, but when studied as a record of the thoughts of men in a certain social environment or as a means of making more perfect the intercommunication of mind with mind through the symbols of language,

then, indeed English becomes truly a social science, for it aims to create a sympathetic understanding between minds in spite of the isolation of the physical differentness of persons. It is the most important function of English, as it is of language in general, to perform the social service of making minds completely intelligible to each other.

Although every subject in the high-school program of studies should be taught with the social purpose of making good citizens, there are certain subjects which have a more direct bearing than others upon the training for citizenship and which, for that reason, should have a large place in every high school. These in general are known as the social sciences. Though history and geography belong in this group, they need not be discussed here because they already are well established in the high-school program. Of the other social sciences, ethics already has been mentioned as a subject of supreme importance. Economics, sociology, political science, and comparative government likewise are needed in order to afford a well-rounded training for good citizenship in the United States.

At this point someone is likely to say that the subjects just mentioned are far beyond the comprehension of high-school students and that they should be left for consideration in college and university. To this objection there are two answers. The first is that delay is dangerous, for while we wait large numbers of high-school students withdraw from school and enter finally upon their life-work. The second answer is that in the few high schools where the social sciences have been introduced, experience has shown that the subject-matter is not too difficult provided due regard is paid to the selection of material and to the methods of presentation. The colleges ought to continue, and doubtless will continue, to teach the social sciences in a manner suitable to the age of their students. The fact that certain subjects hitherto have been taught almost exclusively in college is not a good reason for omitting those subjects from the high school if they are needed in order that the high school may more effectively prepare its students to be useful citizens of the republic.

Problems of economics confront us on all sides. Fortunately the people of the country are coming to regard these problems as outside the sphere of politics and are attempting to solve them by means of scientific investigation instead of party passion. For a

long time to come, however, the demagogue will attempt to capitalize for his own benefit the ignorance of the people on economic matters. The only safeguard is adequate education of just as large numbers of citizens as it is possible to reach. If there is any time in life when people are open-minded to learn the truth, it is in the generous period of youth. It is in the high-school age that our boys and girls should be set to thinking dispassionately about the great economic questions which are pressing for solution. Some of these questions touch intimately the lives of the young through their family relationships. The causes of the high cost of living, for example, the proper share of capital and labor in the profits of industry, the conservation of human and of material wealth, savings and investment, the method of control of public utilities are but a few of the problems which boys and girls almost inevitably will hear discussed at home or on the street. Is there not a duty resting upon the high school to see that these questions are discussed, not as problems of class or of faction, but as national problems that relate to the welfare of all the people?

It goes without saying that the teacher should not be an agent of propaganda of any sort, but a vigorous leader of boys and girls in a diligent search for truth. No one can teach open-mindedness unless he is himself open-minded. Hence the teacher first of all must have the open mind. If without constant investigation on his own account he merely teaches the economic principles which he learned from his college professor, he may propagate error instead of disseminating truth. The static teacher for whom there are no longer any unsolved problems should not be assigned to teach economics in the high school.

What has been said of economics may be said also of sociology. The negro problem, the immigration, and now the emigration problem, the problem of the slum, the problem of illiteracy, the problem of Americanization, the problem of the dependent, the delinquent, and the defective—these and many more force themselves upon the attention of our boys and girls. It will be clear gain if these boys and girls before they leave the high school and go out to settle some of the questions by their votes can have intelligent, sympathetic, unimpassioned, and honest guidance in thinking about the problems which cannot be solved wisely and permanently by the ignorant, or by the thoughtless, or by the indifferent.

Though political science long has been taught in high schools, it usually has been limited to a study of the Constitution of the United States and of local and state governments. There is need of a considerable enlargement of the scope of this subject. The initiative, the referendum and the recall, the short ballot, proportional representation, the commission form of government, the city-manager plan, the delimitation of the functions of the executive, the legislature, and the judiciary are a few of the living issues in political science as applied to the United States. We ought to realize fully that we shall not solve any problems by refusing to consider them. Personally, I hold the opinion that the high school is the proper forum for the discussion of all public questions.

The war has made it interesting and profitable as never before to study comparative government, which is the highest form of political science. Only narrow and provincial minds are indifferent to the institutions that are unlike those with which they are familiar. Other nations have much to teach us by way of either warning or example. America is not a static nation but dynamic. A changing America can grow better only as its citizens know the best that is to be known about government and only as they apply this knowledge in determining the direction which governmental and institutional changes shall take.

There is another compelling reason for the study of the institutions and the forms of government of other peoples than our own. If there is ever to be permanent peace in the world, the nations must know one another, they must understand one another, and they must learn to sympathize with one another through a broad charity and through the practical exemplification of Christian ethics. This broad and sympathetic outlook upon the world has been called "the international mind." It is in no sense inconsistent with the purest patriotism, for while knowing and admiring other nations we still may know best and love most whole-heartedly our own America. And if we love America truly, we shall seek every honorable means for avoiding those quarrels which put her life in jeopardy, and which demand that her sons shall shed their blood. The only guaranty we have for securing permanent immunity from a return of the dreadful scourge through which we have just passed is by the cultivation of international good-will. In this great undertaking which promises so much of hope to a war-weary world,

the high schools can bear a most useful part. The training of "the international mind" is the rounding out and completion of an adequate system of training in citizenship.

If we accept the general principles which have been set forth somewhat fully, it remains to embody these principles in a concrete program of study for the high school. Such a program will require a more liberal allowance of time than hitherto has been given to citizenship training. It seems to the writer that a minimum of two class periods a week through the six years of a junior and a senior high school would be necessary. If we include the seventh and eighth grades in our plans, we are enabled to begin with a basic course in community civics. The whole program, then, might well be as follows—

For grades seven and eight: Community civics

For grade nine: Economics

For grade ten: Sociology

For grade eleven: Political science

For grade twelve: Comparative government

No place is assigned to ethics in this program because it is not yet clear to the writer that ethics as a science or as an abstract philosophy can be brought within the range of understanding and of interest of high-school pupils. On the other hand, the ethical principles involved in all the issues that are raised should be understood clearly as determining factors in the proposed solutions. In this manner all the courses in citizenship would be founded upon ethics although no specific course in ethics is provided.

In every course the work should be made as practical as possible. The profuse richness of concrete material is so evident that there is no good reason for using anything else. Throughout the six years of the high school every effort should be made to encourage pupil activity and pupil initiative. The Boy Scouts, the Girl Scouts, and the Campfire Girls have led the way in showing to us schoolmasters how activity may be organized so as to produce rich results in character-building. *To do a good turn every day* is surely an application of ethics and of citizenship.

The training which we are to give in citizenship will be strengthened greatly if we utilize more fully than we yet have done the excellent organizations which stand ready to be our coadjutors. The Junior Red Cross, for example, has set an ideal that it would be

hard to surpass. In its recent circular letter I find the following announcement—

The big aim of the Junior Red Cross movement is to promote conditions that will make for happy childhood the world over. Its purposes in general are—

In co-operation with the schools

- a) to enlist American school children in the service of suffering childhood both in the local community and in the countries devastated by the war;
- b) to secure thereby for American children those habits of mind which can grow only out of unselfish service;
- c) to lay a foundation of mutual understanding among American citizens of the coming generation within our own communities and between them and the citizens of other nations, whereby the peace and prosperity of the world may be maintained.

It remains for the school to incorporate these fine purposes in its own work of training and to lead the way in making further extensions of methods of practical service.

Finally, it should be remembered that the first aim of courses in citizenship is not to give information but to make good citizens. If we merely add one or more textbooks to an already large list, we shall increase only the intellectual equipment of our pupils. There is already a disproportionate emphasis upon the intellectual in our schools. We need now to restore the balance by stressing the emotional and the volitional elements in the lives of pupils on the principle that "This ought ye to have done and not to have left the other undone."

The public high schools have a clear call to send out into active life young men and women who are trained to love America and who have learned how to show that love by means of self-sacrificing service. There can be no doubt that the high schools will respond to the call.

Educational Writings

I. REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

BOOKS ON VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND GUIDANCE

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An interesting study in personnel administration.—*Employment Psychology*¹ by Henry C. Link has grown out of the practical experience of the author in attempting to meet some of the modern employment problems. It is an effort to lay down the guiding principles for scientific procedure in the application of psychology to personnel work. This is done through the detailed presentation of actual experimentation and practice in the administration of psychological tests in connection with a large industrial plant. It is especially gratifying at this time to find the author raising the discussion of psychological tests from the level of laboratory experimentation, or even conjecture, and placing it upon the level of results accomplished under practical working conditions.

The book is written in four parts covering in order "Psychological Tests," "Trade Tests and Other Applications of Employment Psychology," "Selection and Retention," and "Conclusions." The detailed discussions of psychological tests center around the selection and classification of inspectors, assemblers, clerks, stenographers, typists, comptometrists, machine operators, and tool-makers' apprentices. There is throughout the discussions an undercurrent of critical evaluation of current literature and practice. There is pointed criticism of the so-called scientific systems of selection by "observational methods" and a plea for something better than "cook book" or "home remedy" procedure in employment practice.

The author has brought together not only material that is of value to employers and personnel workers but also a fund of information and experience that is of especial interest to educators. It should be read by all students of vocational-guidance problems.

A discussion of modern labor and industrial problems.—There comes from the press of the McGraw-Hill Book Company a volume by Mr. John R. Commons entitled *Industrial Goodwill*.² This is a non-technical treatment of present-day

¹HENRY C. LINK, *Employment Psychology—The Application of Scientific Methods to the Selection, Training, and Grading of Employees*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1919. Pp. xii+440. \$2.50.

²JOHN R. COMMONS, *Industrial Goodwill*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1919. Pp. 213.

industrial problems from a broad social and intensely human point of view. Professor Commons calls attention to the duties and opportunities of each of the three parties to industrial controversies—labor, management, and the public. He shows that "goodwill" is a matter of public as well as individual importance and that it is through mutual adjustment that lasting progress is to be made. He makes a plea for security of employment, stability of the labor market, adequate insurance, loyalty, better shop administration, and functional education. The author not only calls attention to desirable theoretical development but also points out many significant examples of progressive practice. The book should be read by school people generally and should serve as basic material for clear thinking about some of our most important industrial problems. It is of especial significance for those interested in industrial education and vocational guidance.

A compilation of recent literature on employment management.—There is probably no phase of modern industrial organization and administration of more significance to the educator than that which is concerned with personnel problems. It is this phase of industry which has to do directly with the articulation of the school and later vocational work. The work of the schools in training individuals and the work of the personnel department of large industrial and commercial enterprises become part and parcel of the same process. The author of *Employment Management*¹ has brought together a collection of selected readings covering the most significant phases of personnel work. While there is no attempt at critical evaluation in the text itself, the articles have been included on the basis of such an evaluation. The selections represent authors who are eminently qualified to write on their respective subjects. The list includes discussions covering the administration of the employment office, methods of selection, training and promotion, welfare, functional foremanship, etc. This manual should be of especial service to those interested in industrial education and vocational-guidance problems.

A text for training-courses in salesmanship.—The recognition of the need for specific vocational training of less than college grade has led to a demand for text and reference material for use in connection with such work. There has been especial need for printed material that would in large part afford a program of work for teachers not especially skilled in organizing these newer phases of school work. Helen Rich Norton's *A Textbook on Retail Selling*² not only outlines the objectives of training in the field of retail selling, but also suggests the problematic units of subject-matter necessary for the attainment of these ends. The author uses actual sales experiences to illustrate the principles of successful sales practice. The book is intended for use in training courses affording an opportunity for actual practice in connection with mercantile establishments. The experiences outlined are centered in part around the case method of treatment, and therefore call for approximate reproduction of sales conditions. The book has grown out of a number of years' experience in sales and training work

¹ DAVID BLOOMFIELD, *Employment Management*. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1919. Pp. xx+507. \$1.80.

² HELEN RICH NORTON, *A Textbook on Retail Selling*. New York: Ginn & Co., 1919. Pp. xi+283.

in connection with one of the largest mercantile houses in Boston. It should prove especially helpful in part-time training courses in salesmanship.

In addition to its value as a text in actual training for retail selling, this book is one of the best available sources of information concerning the nature of sales work. From this point of view it will be found helpful in the hands of teachers and as a general reference for the vocational guidance of secondary-school students.

An opportunity volume for high-school students.—Frederick J. Allen's *The Law as a Vocation*¹ is one of a series of vocational studies. The book is intended to afford material that will assist young people in the choice of a vocation. It should encourage those who show marked ability and sincerity of purpose and discourage those of mediocre ability or questionable motives. The author discusses the development of "Law as a Vocation," calls attention to the present overcrowding of the profession, indicates the training necessary for success, something of the routine work of the lawyer, the usual line of advancement, and finally the rewards to be expected both from the economic and service points of view. The book is suggestive and will be helpful not only because of the information contained but also as a basis for further study and investigation.

SOME RECENT BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL CLASSES IN FRENCH

KATHARINE M. SLAUGHT and A. MARIE CÔTÉ WEAVER
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A. LITERARY TEXTS

A new edition of Colomba for third-year students.—In the Macmillan French Series is found an edition of the ever-new, ever-delightful *Colomba*.² This master novel of Mérimée, which opened the door of the Académie to the author, is well edited by Victor E. François, who has taken great pains to make the book usable for students. The carefully planned notes are full and elucidating and are just long enough to clear up the points; they do not send one's thoughts wandering on side-issues. Of great value, also, is the key to Italian pronunciation, given in a few general rules. Learning to pronounce the names of places and persons in the original language adds much to the *couleur locale*. For teachers using the direct method, the groups of questions, the answers for which are found directly in the text, are complete and not too complicated. These questions are distinctly identified by the headings of the group, such as "Based on chap. i, pages 1-5," etc. Following the questions are English sentences to be turned into the French idiom. A teacher insisting upon these sentences being written, by following the text (and not using the French vocabulary in the book or a dictionary), should obtain excellent French expressions by this direct treatment.

A very practical addition to this edition is a map of Corsica, indicating the principal points mentioned and tracing in distinct outline the route followed by

¹ FREDERICK J. ALLEN, *The Law as a Vocation*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1919. Pp. viii+83.

² VICTOR E. FRANÇOIS, Mérimée's *Colomba*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1919. Pp. x+306.

the participants in the story. With each change of place mentioned, the mind need not fumble about, wondering where everybody is now in relation to everybody else. The map settles that clearly.

The charm of the story has been enhanced by pen and ink drawings, in full- and half-page size, by Herbert Deland Williams. They are well-chosen scenes from important places and monuments mentioned in the novel.

Many parts of this interesting book contain effective and convincing dialogue. These sections may be committed to memory and dramatized. By this further direct use of the text better comprehension and better expression may be obtained. The conversation between Chilina and Orso (pages 79-80) is an example of dialogue that may be easily arranged for dramatization. Groups of words learned in this way are the student's very own and serve as pegs for many new developments.

A teacher of imagination using the direct method should accomplish much with this edition in the furthering of *la langue et la pensée française*.

An easy French comedy.—A very readable edition of Labiche's delicious farce, *La Poudre aux Yeux*,¹ prepared by C. P. Lebon, Master in the English High School, Boston, has just come from the press of the Macmillan Company. It recommends itself first by a short introduction which omits the usual long account of the author's life, but vividly portrays the real spirit of the master-dramatist. It is to the point, concise, satisfying. The explanatory notes are of the same description. Excellent exercises are furnished which include questions on the text, sentences for translation into French, practice on idioms and verbs.

To teachers who seek a play full of fun but not too subtle, well-interpreted and prepared for classroom use, with a good vocabulary, this edition comes as a real help.

B. READERS

An excellent second- or third-year French reader.—*La Belgique Triomphante*² by L'Abbé Joseph Larsimont, Assistant Directeur du Bureau Belge de New York, is an attractive reader, adaptable for use in second- or third-year French classes. Its comprehensive account of Belgian history from the very beginning through the days of the American Relief Commission, its fine treatment of famous cities and their buildings, its description of works of art, of industries and sports, all well illustrated and arranged in fifty-three chapters, render the book not only interesting but also most instructive.

At the end of each of the first twenty-five chapters are French questions on the text, grammatical exercises, and an English composition for translation. After the twenty-fifth lesson the grammatical exercises are omitted. It is provided with a complete vocabulary, a map, a table of proper names with French explanations, and several songs.

The appearance of this excellent reader is timely, in view of our recent welcome to Belgium's great Cardinal and our interest in his country. In the words

¹ C. P. LEBON, Labiche's, *La Poudre aux Yeux*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1919. Pp. viii+122. \$0.48.

² L'ABBÉ JOSEPH LARSIMONT, *La Belgique Triomphante*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1919. Pp. ix+311. \$1.40.

of the preface, "It presents an important aspect of Gallic civilization which our present interest in things French does not permit us to overlook. It will help to make young Americans better acquainted with a land that has been the outpost of civilization against barbarism since the dawn of the Christian era; a country which first cradled art and learning north of the Alps; a people whose strife and sufferings for the past four years form but another chapter in the glorious history of those concerning whom Caesar rightly said: 'Of all the peoples of Gaul the Belgians are the bravest.'"

French war stories for elementary students.—The publishers say of *La France Héroïque*¹: "This reader has been prepared for the purpose of helping American pupils to have a clearer realization of the undying spirit of heroism and self-sacrifice that animated the people of France during the recent war. The selections are interesting and varied, and relate simply and truthfully, in the language of every-day life, some of the deeds of valor of the officers, soldiers, and civilians of this great nation which has been aptly called 'The Soldier of God.'"

These forty-one thrilling accounts of brave deeds are precisely what the high-school boy and girl will read with enthusiasm; their very modernity makes them the more appealing. Most of them are related in the present tense or the *passé de la conversation* (*passé indéfini*) with plenty of vivid dialogue, so that an overdose of the *passé absolu* (*passé défini*) is avoided. Difficult expressions are well explained by footnotes in French, when possible; in English, when plainly necessary. A few good sketches lend interest to the subject-matter. Besides a complete vocabulary with historical and geographical notes in simple French, there is a series of exercises, one for each episode. The latter include intelligent questions on the text, questions on synonyms, simple idiomatic sentences for translation into French, and various other devices—all adapted to the direct method of teaching. The book is well worth consideration by every wide-awake teacher of the direct method.

An essay for advanced French students.—By editing a thesis entitled, *De l'Universalité de la Langue Française*,² W. W. Comfort, president of Haverford College, has resurrected to literary notice Antoine Rivarol, who long has lain buried and unmarked, save by the meager monument of a few lines devoted to mention of him in the *Histoires de la Littérature Française*. This brilliant ornament of the salons of Paris, known "chiefly as a wit, a brilliant conversationalist, whose caustic judgment and trenchant phrase were remarked by his contemporaries," was "a perfect type of the eighteenth century Frenchman. His talent for general truth, and his genius for brilliant epigram make his literary remains of decided interest." But he is not often read.

This thesis, by devious blending of historical facts and logical conclusions, shows just why French has become the universal language. By universal language Rivarol means that language which, by its natural growth, its power, and flexibility, is best able to express exactly, concisely, and fittingly the great thoughts developed by all nations. It is the survival of the fittest among lan-

¹ F. H. Osgood, *La France Héroïque, Episodes de la Grande Guerre*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., Pp. vi+174. \$1.00.

² W. W. COMFORT, Antoine Rivarol's *De l'Universalité de la Langue Française*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1919. Pp. vi+62. \$0.50.

guages. Rivarol traces the growth of the "patois picard" to its present form as we know it. He shows why the surrounding countries were unable to assert their linguistic superiority. The exposition rings true. Every line confirms "l'universalité de la langue française si bien reconnue et si hautement avouée dans notre Europe."

The explanatory footnotes by Mr. Comfort are in English and explain historical and literary references.

Mr. Comfort says in his introduction that this thesis is of real value just now to those beginning the study of the French language and literature because it answers adequately the questions, "Why should we study French? What has been the part of France and her people in the service of civilization?" It is the opinion of the reviewer that it would be of doubtful value to a beginner of French. The thought is too profound to be extracted by one struggling with the difficulties of a new vehicle of expression. Also, one would not introduce a student to the French language by means of such formal reading with its difficult phrasing and its air of a century ago. But a student, after mastering the more modern conversational French, would certainly derive much pleasure and information from it.

C. GRAMMARS

A new complete French grammar.—A copy of *A Practical French Course*¹ by Leopold Cardon, instructor in romance languages in Ohio State University, is brought to our attention. It is intended for beginning students in college or high school. Its object is "to teach students to understand, speak, read and write ordinary French"—rather a large order, but the grammar has set out to do its share toward the goal, provided the students react in the desired manner.

The lessons are divided into sections comprising: (1) actions or little scenes for direct practice preceding the study of the grammar; (2) grammatical rules and forms that may be constructed from observation of the story preceding; (3) vocabularies that group together words pertaining to the same subject; (4) French texts drawn from the facts, customs, and needs of daily life; (5) oral and written exercises which oblige the pupil to speak and to form complete sentences for everyday use; (6) extracts from French literature for reading, illustrating the rules, and recommended for their literary and educational value; (7) special provision for the synthetic study of verbs; (8) review exercises and examination questions after every fourth lesson and in French as early as seems practicable.

To the teacher using the direct method, some of these divisions offer better material than others; these may be easily selected and emphasized by the individual teacher. Some teachers may object to a too early introduction of the subjunctive, to the very long vocabularies, and to the absence of the treatment of phonetic transcription.

Maps of France and of Paris found in the book are of certain value, as are also pictures of buildings and scenes in the city, but the map of Paris is not clear enough for one unacquainted with the place, and isolated pictures with no allusions made to them in the immediate neighborhood lose much of their value.

The grammar as a whole has many fine points to recommend it.

¹ LEOPOLD CARDON, *A Practical French Course*. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1917. Pp. xx+443.

A direct-method text for beginners in French.—A new beginning book in French offering many possibilities for acquiring the language is *Le Français pour Tous*¹ by Noëlia Dubrule of the Lawrence, Massachusetts, High School. It embodies the principles of the direct method.

The first fact that arrests one's attention is the cheerful effect produced by pictures and reading matter in conversational form, which, while containing excellent working and workable material, do not give the book an overcrowded, indigestible appearance. This appeals to young students particularly. The pictures contain the illustrative material for the text, representing a schoolroom scene with all accessories, a home scene, a group at the table, children playing in the sand, and so on through well-organized and easily interpreted combinations of persons and things.

The text proper contains no English whatever. The directions are all in French and even the world-old English-to-French sentences are missing. In their stead for written home work are found exercises containing sentences with blank spaces to be filled out by students with suitable, previously learned, obvious words. Farther on come the "redactions," or the written regrouping of phrases and sentences to build up a given subject or image.

At intervals are found what the author calls a "jeu de mémoire." The pupils take a subject, for example, *La maison et le jardin*. The game proceeds. "Nommez deux noms qui commence par P—le perron, la porte; nommez deux noms qui commence par F—la fenêtre, les fleurs; nommez deux adjectifs qui commence par B—belle, bleu." And so the game continues. This appears to be an excellent and stimulating memory exercise. Every lesson contains also groups of words making a sense unit to be learned by heart—salutations, the most used imperative forms, and occasionally a song (the music is given) like the well-beloved "Frère Jacques," "La Mère Michel," etc.

Those who fear that the grammar may be neglected should have their attention called to the "grammaire" section under each lesson. This presents verb conjugations in regular steps of advancement with provision for the necessary grammar drill.

A thorough analysis of the many excellent points of this little book would require more space than is allotted here. To practitioners of the direct method the book will come as a real help. It is thorough, never monotonous, alive with the spirit that animates a child's life, full of variety and interest, and throughout progresses directly toward its author's expressed goal: "to know the essential principles of grammar, to be able to read understandingly simple stories and even small items of news in French newspapers, to write an ordinary letter, and to be able to speak fluently with a clear and distinct pronunciation." Speaking fluently does not necessarily mean speaking perfectly, but it means that the pupil is not restrained by fear of his mistakes. "If," says the author, "in order to speak we had to wait until perfection is reached, the world would be very silent."

A grammar for teachers of the direct method or of an eclectic method.—In the preface of their *Grammaire de Conversation et de Lecture*,² published last year,

¹ NOËLIA DUBRULE, *Le Français pour Tous*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1919. Pp. xxvii+259.

² DANIEL C. ROSENTHAL and VICTOR CHANKIN, *Grammaire de Conversation et de Lecture*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1918. Pp. viii+423.

Daniel C. Rosenthal and Victor Chankin, instructors in French in DeWitt Clinton High School, New York City, describe their plan and purpose as follows:

"This book is dedicated to no one theory of teaching. We understand only that the student should learn French as easily and as readily as possible. Consequently, this book may be used exclusively as a basis for the direct method, or for an eclectic method. It combines, we hope, all the advantages of both. We have based all grammatical points in a lesson upon a continuous passage of French prose; thus, there are no detached French sentences, except in the Questionnaires. We have treated topically all such points within the lesson and within a definite group of lessons. Grammar drill and verb drill we have especially emphasized. With respect to the technique of presentation, we wish to suggest to the teachers using this book that at least three or four days must be spent upon each lesson."

In the introduction the authors give a comprehensive exposition of the essentials of French pronunciation, but no idea is given as to how these are to be presented to the pupil. In the first lesson one finds some of the more difficult vowel sounds and in the second lesson there are difficult liaisons together with groups containing mute syllables.

Each lesson contains (1) *leçon de lecture*; (2) *questionnaire*; (3) *explication*, consisting of English questions on the grammatical points; (4) a *vocabulaire* with the English meanings; (5) an *exercice de grammaire*, consisting of a French paragraph to be memorized or written, and a "complétez"; (6) an *exercice anglais* to be translated into French. This system is carried through the sixty-three lessons, thoroughly in accord with the spirit of the preface. The presentation of irregular verbs at the end is very clear and complete. There is a French-English and an English-French vocabulary. One could wish that the illustrations were explained in the text, but this does not necessarily detract from their attractiveness as pictures.

The book is thorough and adaptable and should make a fine reference as well as textbook.

SPANISH TEXTS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

C. E. PARMENTER
The University of Chicago

Interesting material for sight translation.—Under the title, *Spanish Selections for Sight Translation*,¹ D. C. Heath and Company have recently published a little collection of fifty short passages compiled by Mr. I. H. B. Spiers of the William Penn Charter School, Philadelphia. The passages are selected for the most part from modern Spanish prose writers and journalists, with samples of poetry and maxims, making material of unusual interest available for sight translation. It offers a great variety in subject, style, and difficulty, carefully graded, but with no helps in the way of vocabulary or notes. The hints for sight translation on page 6 addressed to the student will be of interest also to teachers who neglect to

¹ I. H. B. SPIERS, *Spanish Selections for Sight Translation*. Philadelphia: D. C. Heath & Co., 1919. Pp. vii+47. \$0.27.

use this valuable means of testing increase in power. Frequent tests of this sort are enlightening to both teacher and student. The ingenious teacher will find the selections adaptable to many different uses. The opportunity of familiarizing the students with the names of the more important authors should not be neglected. Two selections from Blasco Ibáñez and another about him, three by Azorín on various aspects of the *Quijote*, two each from Benavente, the Quintero brothers, Galdós, Valle-Inclán, Pardo Bazán, Valdés, etc., form a miniature anthology of contemporary literature.

A playlet suitable for acting or reading.—Teachers of Spanish in high schools should be informed of a new edition of a clever fairy tale, *La muela del Rey Farfán*,¹ written by S. and J. Álvarez Quintero and annotated by A. M. Espinosa. The tale is in the form of a juvenile musical comedy, satirizing royal courts and doctors, and has been prepared for use in the second year of high school or the second semester of college. It combines the varied advantages of being the work of two contemporary Spanish dramatists of the first rank, of being humorous and interesting with a plot which is easily comprehended, and of offering conversational language with frequent repetitions and no long or difficult speeches. Professor Espinosa has provided helpful notes at the bottom of each page and valuable *cuestionarios* at the end. This playlet will be found suitable for acting as well as for reading.

An elementary reader to alternate with stories.—Dr. Manuel Uribe-Troncoso has produced an easy-reading text, *Por Tierras Mejicanas*,² to bridge the gap between the elementary reader and the novel or play of literary value. As the book is intended primarily to teach the student to read with facility, no notes, exercises, or questions have been included. The vocabulary is full and detailed. The author thus offers us a middle course between books loaded with linguistic exercises and the strictly literary text, neither of which is suited to the acquisition of a facile reading knowledge of everyday Spanish in a short space of time. His purpose also is to give students an interest in, and knowledge of, Mexico and her people. The contents are: pages ix–xv, a critical list of books in English on Mexico; pages 3–23, geography, climate and seasons, principal cities; pages 35–78, primitive races, the conquest, the colonial period, the war of independence, from the independence to the French intervention, the French intervention, from the Empire to 1917; pages 85–103, mining, agriculture, industry and commerce, railways; pages 109–31, how the Mexicans live now, the problems of Mexico. The book contains several maps and many interesting and instructive illustrations. The book makes available for rapid reading material with which it is highly desirable students should become acquainted. Such an array of facts, statistics, and strange names will soon become dull and tiresome, however, if it is not combined with some other type of work such as the grammar text or stories. One way of avoiding this difficulty would be to start it when half way through the elementary reader and alternate with stories or more interesting material.

¹ S. and J. ÁLVAREZ QUINTERO, *La muela del Rey Farfán*. With notes, exercises, and vocabulary by A. M. Espinosa. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1919. Pp. xii+93. \$0.52.

² MANUEL URIBE-TRONCOSO, *Por Tierras Mejicanas*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1919. Pp. xviii+180. \$0.88.

The text is too encyclopedic in style and content for a steady diet, however desirable a knowledge of this content is.

An information reader.—We are told in the preface of *Cuba y las costumbres cubanas*¹ that the book is the result of several months spent in Cuba. It records what a tourist would see and learn, and contains an account of many Cuban customs essentially the same as those in Spain. One of its purposes is to furnish information with reference to the Spanish-American republic whose relations to the United States are the closest. The title is slightly misleading, since of the 87 pages of text more than three-fourths are devoted to Havana.

The chapter headings are: "el clima de Cuba"; "el puerto de la Habana"; "primeras impresiones"; "el Morro y la Cabaña"; "la Plaza de Armas"; "los parques y las calles"; "el cementerio Colón"; "la educación pública"; "notas a la ventura"; "Habana, la ciudad de más clubs del mundo"; "una fiesta nacional"; "las fiestas de Pascuas"; "un viaje a Matanzas." Like the preceding book it is filled so full of information that it is in danger of becoming monotonous and tiresome before a class has finished it. The style changes from first to third person, combines narration and description, and one chapter is written in the form of a letter. But until this type of subject-matter is lightened by more narrative, anecdote, or personal interest, we can not hope to hold the students' interest. Galdós in his *Episodios nacionales* in Spanish and Henty in English have shown how to administer information in a painless fashion. Doses of statistics, geography, and guide-book material in general need copious dilution before being given to a class. The book contains a map, thirty-five interesting illustrations, most of which are from snap-shots taken by the author, and the national hymn. It has questions in Spanish on each section, exercises for translation, notes, and a complete vocabulary. Teachers who desire a book of this type will find Professor Ewart's an excellent one.

A revised second-year text.—Worman and Bransby's *Second Spanish Book*,² which has enjoyed more or less popularity since 1888 under the seal of the "natural method," now appears with text unaltered, a rewritten introduction and treatment of pronunciation, one modernized illustration, and the addition of a Spanish-English vocabulary. Direct methodists will hardly consider the above changes sufficient to justify the application of "direct method" to a book which places paradigms at the head of the lesson and has no exercises. The synonymous use of terms denoting two methods so widely different in theory and practice as the natural and the direct is deplorable. Teachers who have been fortunate enough to read the excellent *Manual de pronunciación española*, by T. Navarro Tomás, Madrid, 1918, will hardly be satisfied with the following sentence on page v of Worman: "Aside from a very few exceptions, *each letter is to be pronounced in every case, and always in the same way, its sound being practically invariable.*"

The text itself needs no introduction to teachers of experience. Its abundant use of illustrations, connected material, practical vocabulary introduced so that

¹ FRANK C. EWART, *Cuba y las costumbres cubanas*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1919. Pp. xiv+157. \$0.76.

² JAMES H. WORMAN AND CARLOS BRANSBY. *Second Spanish Book*. New York: American Book Co., 1918. Pp. xii+129.

the meaning is often evident from the context alone, its use of synonyms in brackets, and the frequent introduction of stories, fables, anecdotes, and poetry make it a text which will always have a positive value. The addition of the vocabulary by making home work easier should remove some objections offered in the past to its use in large classes.

Practical books for school-garden and farm.—Two volumes have recently appeared, *Plant Production* by Moore and Halligan¹ and *Horticulture* by K. C. Davis,² both of which undertake to develop skill and an understanding of the biological principles involved in plant production. They are designed as high-school texts, and in both the chapters are supplemented by suggestive questions, laboratory exercises, and home projects. What to do and how to do it are conspicuous in the books, but the why and wherefore are not so apparent. The method is given for planting and caring for practically all the garden crops, garden and orchard fruits, lawn shrubs and shade trees, all so explicitly and clearly that the novice may follow directions with certainty. In each book this work is also outlined by months to remind the beginner what are the proper activities for each season. There is adequate treatment of the methods for combating insect pests.

If the pupil has farms and gardens that are giving him real problems, the books will be used to good advantage. If he has apple trees infested with borers, if he has currants or grapes which he wants to know how to prune, or some garden crop is disappearing under the ravages of a pest, he will find clear and concise directions as to what to do and how to do it. But the books need such motivation. The reviewer has noted with regret as he has visited high-school classes in agriculture that there is less laboratory work, less contact with concrete situations than in the botany instruction which the agriculture has often replaced, and that the teacher is content to conduct the class as recitation of subject-matter learned from the text even when the school is located in the midst of farms that would furnish an abundance of illustrative material. One could wish, therefore, that in these excellent texts the exercises and questions came at the beginning of each chapter rather than at the end, that they were more extensive and more explicit and not simply reviews of what has preceded in the text. For instance, an exercise dealing with grapes in the first book is as follows: "At what distance apart are grapes planted? How many plants can be set on an acre if the plants are set 8 feet by 10 feet? At six cents a plant what would it cost to set out an acre of grapes?" The second book has at the end of the corresponding chapter these as suggestions: "Setting, trellising and caring for young vines *may* be a project for the first year of the vineyard." "Discuss the propagation of grapes." In a word, the directions for projects are not likely to force actual experience on the part of the pupils nor are the questions likely to send them out into the farm and garden seeking answers. The books are packed with useful

¹ R. A. MOORE and C. P. HALLIGAN, *Plant Production*. New York: American Book Co., 1919. Pp. 428. \$1.44.

² K. C. DAVIS, *Horticulture*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1919. Pp. vi+416.

information, but it is not skilfully organized from the pedagogical point of view, a fault all too common with texts in elementary agriculture.

E. R. DOWNING

A well-organized reading text for biology classes.—It is a pleasure to record the appearance of a text in high-school biology that is a real biology¹—one in which the subject-matter is organized so as to present biological principles in their proper sequence without chopping the work up into botany, zoölogy, and physiology. These principles are illustrated in this book by animals or plants, according to whichever serves best the author's purposes, and the human physiology is incorporated under the appropriate headings, not tacked on as if an afterthought to a discussion of the physiology of other organisms, but made an integral part of biology, the most important part from our human standpoint.

The book is divided into six parts. The first briefly develops the notion of energy and the need of its development in the organism. Part two deals with life processes of the organism; three takes up the continuity of life; four, the external relations of organisms; five, heredity and evolution; six, man and other organisms, a study of the classification of living things, and man's superiority.

The text is primarily a reading text and the teacher would need to use some laboratory guide with it or furnish the directions himself. But the matter is well chosen, is modern, is clearly presented, and the illustrations are mostly new and to the point. As a rule the organisms chosen for discussion are those commonly occurring and of intrinsic interest to the pupils. The range of subject-matter is pretty wide and it is doubtful if the ordinary high-school class will cover the book in one year if projects or the needed laboratory work are added. Still the presentation is so interesting that pupils will take larger doses without protest than ordinarily. For instance, the subjects of tobacco and alcohol are given a statistical presentation with an array of facts that are fascinating and impressive.

E. R. DOWNING

An economics book for the high-school reference shelves.—A useful addition to the general introduction texts in economics has been made through the publication of John Roscoe Turner's *Introduction to Economics*.² It is a thorough, careful, readable book.

Professor Turner expresses in the preface his belief in fundamentals and he has made good his belief in the book proper. And in attempting to deal with fundamentals he has made rather happy use of the illustrative material which the past few years has been developing regarding modern industry and commerce. This material gives a readability to the book which is lacking in certain treatises which are concerned chiefly with principles.

The first four chapters of the book, though not so designated, are an introduction to what follows. They describe in a broad fashion the economic changes

¹ BENJAMIN C. GRIENBERG, *Elementary Biology*.⁷ Boston: Ginn & Co., 1919. Pp. x+528. \$1.56.

² JOHN ROSCOE TURNER, *Introduction to Economics*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1919. Pp. vi+641. \$2.50.

in England which preceded modern economic organization. Chapter four outlines the general characteristics of "The Present Economic Order." This type of introduction is useful but the author makes it less servicable than it might be if more constant reference for comparison were made to it in the main portion of the book.

The twenty-two chapters that compose the book proper are not in their plans or principles particularly different from the ordinary treatise. In these respects they are rather conventional than otherwise. But as has been suggested, there is a good deal of freshness in treatment which makes the book readable.

The book is not well adapted for secondary-school use as a text, although it would be a desirable volume on high-school reference shelves. For a text it is somewhat long, certainly too long for semester courses. It is also too much concerned with "technical economics" in parts to be of the most use to the average secondary class or secondary teacher. Further, the phraseology is not particularly well chosen for secondary use. For their own reading or for reference material teachers of economics in high schools will find it enlightening.

LEVERETT S. LYON

A readable text for high-school teachers of economics.—A volume well worth the attention of high-school teachers of economics is Laing's *An Introduction to Economics*.¹ A remarkable number of subjects and a remarkable amount of material are presented in a manner which on the whole is readable, interesting, and clear. For the most part the book moves with a swing quite different from the heavy pedagogic tread of many elementary economics texts.

Especially well worked out are chapters iv to ix dealing with the organization and laws of production and the organization of capital. This section should give the student more than usual interest.

The first three chapters set the assumptions on which the study of economics is to proceed. They are promising—almost over-promising as the matter turns out. The author promises, or at least forecasts, an analysis of a dynamic system of economics. "Modern civilization," he says, "is dynamic," and, later in referring to our economic structure, "it is one of modified and controlled competition." But the promise of this beginning is not maintained, especially after chapter x is reached. The analysis of value is primarily the old static analysis. Water and coffee have replaced the proverbial oranges in illustrating diminishing utility and little or nothing of the psychological factors or static assumptions involved in this theory are suggested. After a discussion of the "law of supply and demand," still largely in static terms, the customary chapter on monopoly price follows.

Once the discussion of value is ended, the book devotes itself to a considerable extent to special problems. This is not wholly the case, but banking, money problems, international trade, and the organization of labor are featured, while a special chapter is devoted to the remuneration of labor in addition to the more general one dealing with other forms of distribution. These special chapters are

¹ GRAHAM A. LAING, *An Introduction to Economics*. New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1919. Pp. xi+454.

more theoretical than descriptive, and are for high-school purposes weakened thereby. A larger amount of material dealing merely with marketing machinery—the mere organization of trade channels—are as valuable, probably more valuable, to the high-school student than the more abstract presentation of somewhat assumed conditions.

Altogether, the book, with some decided limitations, is more alive, more fresh, and more modern than many in the field and well worth notice.

LEVERETT S. LYON

II: CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED DURING THE PAST MONTH

A. GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

BRANOM, MENDEL E. *The Project Method in Education*. Boston: Richard G. Badger, 1919. Pp. 282. \$1.75.

CHANCELLOR, WILLIAM ESTABROOK. *Educational Sociology*. New York: Century Co., 1919. Pp. ix+422. \$2.25.

COOLEY, ANNA M., WINCHELL, CORA M., SPOHR, WILHELMINA H., and MARSHALL, JOSEPHINE A. *Teaching Home Economics*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1919. Pp. xii+555. \$1.80.

Elementary Adult Education in the Los Angeles City Schools. Los Angeles, California: Los Angeles City School District, 1919. Pp. 88.

ELSMON, J. C., and TRILLING, BLANCHE M. *Social Games and Group Dances*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1919. Pp. 258.

MORSE, ANSON DANIEL. *Civilization and the World War*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1919. Pp. xiv+222. \$1.50.

STRAYER, GEORGE D., ENGELHARDT, N. L., and HART, F. W. *General Report of School Buildings and Grounds of Delaware*. Wilmington, Delaware: Service Citizens of Delaware, 1919. Pp. 222.

B. BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

Atlantic Prose and Poetry. Selected and edited by Charles Swain Thomas and H. G. Paul. Boston: Atlantic Monthly Press, 1919. Pp. ix+388.

BLAISDELL, ALBERT F., and BALL, FRANCIS K. *Pioneers of America*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1919. Pp. vii+154. \$0.65.

HARDING, SAMUEL B., and HARDING, MARGARET S. *Old World Background to American History*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1919. Pp. xx+378. \$0.88.

Riverside Literature Series: "Marjorie Daw, Goliath, and Other Stories" by Thomas Bailey Aldrich. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919. Pp. viii+87. \$0.24.

Riverside Literature Series: "Poems for the Study of Language" (revised edition).

Third and fourth years, pp. 105; fifth and sixth years, pp. 107-237; seventh and eighth years, pp. 239-358. \$0.20; \$0.24; \$0.24. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919.

Riverside Literature Series: "Ways of the Woods" by Dallas Lore Sharp. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919. Pp. 119. \$0.28.

C. BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

BAYS, ALFRED W. *Business Law*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1919. Pp. ix+311. \$1.40.

ELSON, WILLIAM H., and KECK, CHRISTINE M. *Junior High School Literature*, Book One. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1919. Pp. xiv+624. \$1.08.

LYON, LEVERETT S. "A Survey of Commercial Education in the Public High Schools of the United States." *Supplementary Educational Monographs*, Vol. II, No. 5. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1919. Pp. x+62. \$0.65.

SCOTT, WALTER. *Rob Roy*. Edited by Eugene R. Musgrove. New York: Macmillan Co., 1919. Pp. xlivi+496. \$0.40.

STEELE, RUFUS. *Aces for Industry*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919. Pp. 93. \$1.00.

D. PUBLICATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION
AND SIMILAR MATERIAL IN PAMPHLET FORM

Recent issues of the Bureau of Education:

Bulletin No. 35, 1919—*The Junior College*.

Bulletin No. 49, 1919—*Education in Parts of the British Empire*.

Bulletin No. 56, 1919—*The Administration of Correspondence-Study Departments of Universities and Colleges*.

Bulletin No. 67, 1919—*Monthly Record of Current Educational Publications*.

Use and Preparation of Food. Bulletin No. 35, Home Economics Series No. 3, October, 1919. Washington: Federal Board for Vocational Education. Pp. 268.

E. MISCELLANEOUS PUBLICATIONS

American Private Schools, 1919-20. Boston: Porter E. Sargent, 14 Beacon Street, 1919. Pp. 768.

BRAWLEY, BENJAMIN. *A Short History of the American Negro*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1919. Pp. xvii+280. \$2.00.

The Work of the American Red Cross During the War. A Statement of Finances and Accomplishments for the Period July 1, 1917, to February 28, 1919. Washington: American Red Cross, 1919. Pp. x+90.

